

The CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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No. 6

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We invite readers to write articles that report good practices, interesting experiments, research findings, or new slants on persistent problems in education. We prefer articles that combine factual reporting, interesting context, and incisive style. Topics should relate to programs, services, and personnel in junior and senior high school.

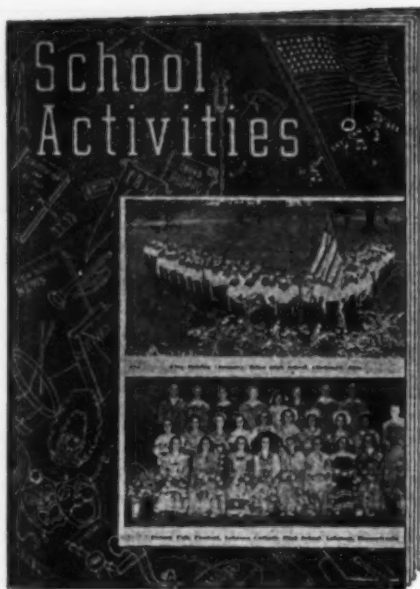
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Needed: A Third Full-Time Partner in Financing Public Education

By
SAM M. LAMBERT

THE FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM rests on obtaining substantial help from a third partner—the federal government. America's education enterprise is growing so fast that traditional plans of school support will no longer carry the full financial burden. A dramatic change has to come. The great debate over whether the federal government should become involved in the support of the public schools is largely academic; in no other way can we keep our heads above water. It is no longer a question of "if" but of "when."

Are the Schools Good Enough?

Everyone knows that schools have improved in recent years. Salaries have been going up 5 or 6 per cent each year for almost a decade. Teachers are better qualified for their work than they were ten years ago. We have a few more counselors and a few more free textbooks, and some improvement has been made in supervisory and administrative services. Some will say we are doing pretty well.

Any optimism about progress in education, however, is tempered by two sobering facts:

- (1) Out of ten pupils entering the fifth grade, only six finish the twelfth.
- (2) Out of every three pupils entering high school (ninth grade), one fails to get his diploma.

These facts tell us a great deal about the inadequacies of the curriculum, the amount of guidance offered, and the quality of teaching.

Costs: Past, Present, and Future

Ten years ago no one predicted the tremendous increase in expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools. In 1948-49 we were spending \$5 billion per year, including capital outlay and debt service. Ten years later, in 1958-59, we were spending almost three times as much—\$14.3 billion.

Expenditures, however, have been exceeding revenues by larger and larger amounts each year. In 1948-49, expenditures exceeded revenues by only \$.1 billion; by 1956-57, the deficit amounted to \$1.6 billion; in 1957-58, \$1.7 billion; and in 1958-59, \$1.8 billion.

It is difficult to estimate how much higher the cost of public schools will go, but according to those who have studied the problem, costs will probably be at least \$30 billion ten years from now.

In 1955 the White House Conference on Education said that costs ought to double in the decade following, but we are already way ahead of this estimate. Costs should have been up 40 per cent last year, according to the WHC schedule; actually they were up 50 per cent.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The greatness of our country is being challenged. Everybody knows that. But what everybody may not recognize is the power of an educated people to sustain our country. Can our schools support the ideals for which America stands if they are allowed to become impoverished? The author comments on this leading question in this hard-hitting article. Dr. Lambert is director of research of the National Education Association.

*Can Local and State Governments
Carry the Load?*

Can we raise another \$15.5 billion from the usual state and local sources? The possibilities are remote.

Let us look at the general property tax which is the source of over half of all our school money and constitutes practically all of the contribution of the local governments. In some states the property tax has gone about as high as it can go. A friend of mine in Maryland paid a property tax bill of \$450 last year. He has not improved his property, but his bill this year is \$565. A visitor to my office from Massachusetts has bought a house that cost him \$15,000; his property tax bill is \$600, or 4 per cent of the total value.

But these are individual cases. Let us look at the over-all situation in several states. The people of New Hampshire are now paying in property taxes \$6.30 of each \$100 of personal income. The people of South Dakota are paying \$5.90; the people of Nebraska, \$5.60. This sounds more like the bite of the federal income tax than of the traditional local property tax.

It is unfortunate that in states where property taxes are low, state taxes usually are correspondingly high. For example, consider Louisiana, a state that is using about every tax ever invented. In this state, state taxes alone are equal to \$7.80 of each

\$100 of personal income. Another example is Mississippi, where state taxes consume \$7.70 of each \$100.

The state governments are gradually using up the really large revenue producers. Thirty-three states already have a personal income tax, and thirty-four have a sales tax. In fact, two states have recently raised their sales taxes to 4 per cent. In the twenty states that have both sales and income taxes, resistance to further taxes is becoming difficult to overcome.

America Has the Wealth

The problem of more than doubling the present \$14.5 billion spent for schools is enough to discourage the most optimistic public administrator. The picture, however, may not be quite so hopeless as it seems.

The productivity of this country is growing at a fantastic rate, and present taxes will continue to bite into the nation's growing wealth and automatically yield more revenue. In 1948 the gross national product (the value of all goods and services produced) was only \$258 billion. In the second quarter of 1959 the G.N.P. was running at the rate of \$485 billion. Although the steel strike cut the G.N.P. rate to \$479 billion in the third quarter, experts predict that with the settlement of the steel strike we should pass the \$500 billion mark early in 1960. *Fortune Magazine* has predicted that by 1970 the gross national product may be as high as \$750 billion per year.

In 1958-59, expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools amounted to 3 per cent of the G.N.P. If we continue to get this share, a \$265 billion increase in G.N.P. would net us \$8 billion more by 1970. Although such an increase would help, this would be only a little over one-half of what the increase will actually be.

This means that the American people have to put a larger share of their increasing wealth into education. Instead of 3 per cent at present, it will have to be 4 to 5 per cent by 1970.

This great increase in the wealth of the country will mean higher incomes for the great majority. The typical American by 1970 might be able to go to thirteen baseball games a year instead of ten. The job of those who are interested in education is to persuade him to go to twelve games and put the price of the thirteenth into education. Although the example is crude, it means that we can support education at the level it should be supported and still have enough left for considerable improvement in our standards of living. Adequate support of education is not a matter of available dollars but of making decisions on what should come first.

Why the Federal Government?

The United States has the economic capacity to support the education we need, but the problem is finding a way of tapping this wealth, of developing machinery that will automatically channel a larger portion of our wealth to take care of our nation's critical needs.

The property tax has serious limitations: It is slow to reflect economic growth and, when it does, it is not in proportion to general indexes of growth. Ownership of property is no longer a good index of ability to pay taxes. State sales and income taxes will do a far better job, but the states have the problem of keeping taxes down in order to attract and hold business and industry.

Of all the means of tapping the nation's growing wealth, the federal income tax is the best. It bites into the expanding economy fast and in the right proportions, and it avoids economic competition among the states.

Although the economic arguments are valid, the real justification for federal support of education is that we have a national, as well as a state and local, interest in education. More and more people are realizing that the schools are the only effective

tool we have in winning the brain-power race with other nations. At present, education is just as important to national defense as are jet planes and hydrogen bombs. Only through the full development of top brain power and the upgrading of all our human resources can we invent and use effectively the new implements and ideas of warfare. *To ignore the national interest in education is suicidal.*

Will the Congress Act?

At present only one bill before the Congress has the backing of educators all over the country. This measure, called the Murray-Metcalf Bill (S. 2 and H.R. 22), provides for a strong third partner in the support of public education and for enough money to the states really to accomplish something: \$1.1 billion the first year and a gradual increase to \$4.7 billion the fourth year and thereafter. Under the bill, money is provided for teachers' salaries and buildings, items of school costs that now account for 70 per cent of all public-school expenditures. The bill is designed to guarantee that control of education will remain in the hands of state and local governments. *The Murray-Metcalf Bill will provide the dramatic change in pattern of school support that must come sooner or later.*

The crucial importance of more money for education is underlined in the Rockefeller Brothers Fund Report, *The Pursuit of Excellence—Education and the Future of America*:

Perhaps the greatest problem facing American education is the widely held view that all we require are a few more teachers, a few more buildings, a little more money. Such an approach will be disastrous. We are moving into the most demanding era in our history. An educational system grudgingly and tardily patched to meet the needs of the moment will be perpetually out of date. We must build for the future in education as daringly and aggressively as we have built other aspects of our national life in the past.

ROOM 110

By KATHERINE BRONSON

IN NEW YORK IT'S GRAND CENTRAL; in Boston, South Station; in Wellesley High School, Room 110—and to the occupant of 110 her role in relation to those who come and go seems like the role of train dispatcher, information clerk, or traveler's aide.

In the span of a few minutes, one hears: "Not here—football tickets are in 25." "Yes, the football *dance* tickets are here, but it's better to buy them from your room chairman." "Please don't leave yearbook money here—that goes to 26. *Those* are football dance envelopes." "Sorry; I don't have extra copies of *The Bradford*—ask Mr. Loretta in 309." "Yes, you do need a 'work' certificate; you get it at the Central Office in the Phillips School; be sure to take your birth certificate with you." "Book covers? Yes, we always have those and the price is the same—ten cents." "Dismissal notes to the main office; tardiness notes here; and absence notes to the nurse." "A map of Wellesley? Yes, here is one I can give you." "For your *Bradford* article? Yes, I'm glad to tell you about College Information Night." "A list of those to receive complimentary

tickets? Yes, but could you wait until tomorrow?" "Yes, we still need more ushers."

"It's still the first hour, but today the periods are 5, 3, X, and 4." "No, the assembly was yesterday." "Sorry, someone has already reserved Room 111." "Yes, bulletin board material is in the closet." "Yes, the American Field Service Christmas cards will be ready after school." "Money for *The Matchmaker* goes to 22." "The Student Council agenda will be ready tomorrow."

During the day, Station 110, situated between the principal's office and the guidance suite, becomes a concourse for principal, counselors, and secretaries, as well as teachers. Sometimes they pass swiftly through, bent on administrative and counseling business, but often they pause for information and consultation.

Between 8:30 and 9:00 each day come those students who are "off schedule" for various reasons. The causes of late arrival reflect the times: "Electric clocks stop—no alarm!" "Out of gas" (driver and three or four passengers are late). In another car, little brother, riding to elementary school, is forgotten until the car arrives in senior-high parking lot. Accidents cause detours; fog slows up traffic; long-term dentistry, involving braces and wedges, is carried on in 8:00 to 8:30 appointments.

As the day develops, the "commuter" scramble gives way to quiet and *confidential* conferences with travelers who have special problems. Some are uncertain about their destinations and seek help in planning an itinerary, whether the destination be placement in a job or in a college. From 110 many students can be dispatched to part-time jobs or full-time permanent employment. By telephone and by mail come many requests for recommendations for jobs as well as for college.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The scene and dramatic personae are familiar. Any principal, vice-principal, head of department, teacher, pupil, and custodian will recognize the rat-tat-tat that goes on in Room 110. It is variously named the Grand Concourse, Grand Central Parkway, or what have you. The author who depicts this fluid traffic is assistant principal, dean of girls, student council sponsor, and coordinator of student activities (no wonder she's busy!) at Gamaliel Bradford Senior High School, Wellesley Hills, Massachusetts.

Also to 110 come those who have had "collisions" with regulations of school and society. Still others come to tell of the pleasure and satisfaction their high-school journey is giving them. Scarcely a day passes without some expression of appreciation of teachers and all that the school offers; often this comes from graduates who treasure a round-trip ticket of infinite validity.

To the student council engineers, conductors, and trainmen, 110 is their terminal, where they plan meetings and sched-

ules, collect and distribute funds, and write reports and letters.

From 7:30 until late afternoon, from September to June, 110 is the turntable for exchange of question and answer, for talking and listening. Then come the summer months with long, uninterrupted days of planning schedules and assigning students to classrooms and study halls. Peaceful it is to work without interruption, but the satisfaction in the work thus accomplished cannot equal the pleasant anticipation of the reopening of school and all it brings to 110!

Geography Is Understanding

By IVAN L. JIRAK
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

In many schools, geography is not the most popular subject. It could be. Learning about faraway places and strange-looking natives, vicariously sailing the seven seas, attacking unclimbed mountains, hacking through unplumbed jungles, and crawling into virgin caves is a part of geography. The more important part, the understanding of cultures different from our own, can be made as exciting and interesting as the exploring part of geography. Love for our fellow man through our understanding of him is a part of this exciting science.

Capitals are not the most important cities in many countries. Oftentimes a revolution in Bogotá is unheard of in Colombia's distant states until many months have passed. A capital like Ankara is not so important in the everyday life of Turkish citizens as is Istanbul, the commercial center of Turkey. Here at home, consider how few times you or your friends have had business in your state capital or in Washington, D.C., and then how many more times you or your associates have sent to Chicago or New York for film or magazines or any of the hundred-and-one items that you use in your daily life. There is little reason for a student to finish a course on Norway knowing that Oslo is the capital and not understanding how fiords affect the lives of the Norwegians.

Within a country, international trade can assume prime importance or it can be only incidentally significant. For instance, hides rank twelfth in Ecua-

dor's export trade, yet as many people are engaged in the cattle business as in the three products of highest value which Ecuador exports. More peoples' lives are affected by cattle than by high-cost items that school children are sometimes compelled to memorize. The international trade of a country is not always a direct measure of its economic activity, nor do comparisons of export-import figures and activities always lead to a correct interpretation of the lives of the country's citizens. To understand our distant neighbors requires that we look deeper into their lives than to examine the surplus of their production and compare it with that of another country which possesses different natural resources, a different degree of accessibility to markets, a different history, culture, and national philosophy.

It does little good to fly over a land, to talk only to customs officials and hotel boys, and to eat tourist meals when you are attempting to understand a people. Understanding is knowledge that does not die as the text is closed, but it is knowledge that tells us that we all are alike, that no two of us, separated as we are by thousands of miles of water, are really different. Understanding of this kind has little room for hate. Love is always welcome, and compassion is ever present. When we really understand a foreign country, we seldom hate its citizens. When we really understand a foreign people, we can seldom divorce their goals, their lives, their ambitions from our own.

Maybe We're Doing It Backward

By R. P. BRIMM

NORMALLY THE TEACHING PROFESSION is cautious in accepting a new idea. We look at it carefully and evaluate it from every point of view before putting it into operation. However, the older practices are seldom questioned and we follow them religiously with little thought of their soundness. Perhaps it would be good to scrutinize some of our established practices in the same way we do newer ideas. It may be that some of our old, routine ways of doing things cannot stand up under the same strenuous criteria to which we subject our newer ideas before they become a part of our educational program.

Let's look at some of our established practices and try to imagine what would happen if we turned them around and did them backward.

More Subjects for the Less Able Student

Traditionally the "B+" or "A" average has been the magic key for a student to break through the barrier of four subjects. The reasoning is that the superior student

should not need the extra study periods to carry the normal load of four subjects and can easily carry an additional class. The less able student, on the other hand, needs all the extra study periods available to get the job done.

Now let's look at it from another angle. The less able student is the one who wastes his time in the study hall and drives his study-hall teacher to distraction. He doesn't know how to study and finds in the study hall a long, endless period in which he must "kill" time. Of course there is that rare study-hall teacher who does work hard at developing study habits and directing study activities, but for the most part the assignments are for "study-hall keepers."

On the other hand, the better student knows how to study and really profits from extra study time by going into the library or laboratory to dig more deeply into the subject. Would it not be better to give the superior student more time to devote to independent study and at the same time place the poorer student in classes every period of the day where he is under the guidance of a teacher. It would seem that such an arrangement could be advantageous to both the poor and the superior student.

Research studies have shown that when students drop courses in order to devote more time to the remaining classes, they seldom improve their marks. There is sound reason and objective evidence to indicate that we may be going about this aspect of our program in a manner that is the reverse of good educational practice.

Looking to the Elementary School for Ideas

The secondary school was conceived as a college preparatory school and most of the ideas have come from the top down. The highly departmentalized course structure

EDITOR'S NOTE

Be not the first by whom the new are tried,
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.

This couplet from the "Essay on Criticism" of Alexander Pope has some pertinence to this article. The author suggests that some traditional practices in education cause us to do things backward, by which he means that we are often overcautious in accepting and putting into practice new worth-while ideas. How do you feel about a few of education's sacred cows? The writer, who is principal of the Teachers College High School at Cedar Falls, Iowa, has his say about hallowed practice; and it is mostly contra.

has come from higher education as have the names and the content of the courses. Perhaps we should turn around and look at the elementary school for some ideas that they have used so successfully. Many common practices of the lower school could be adapted successfully to the secondary.

Reporting pupil progress to parents is one problem that the high school has been struggling with for years. The "Report Card Committee" is the most common committee in the high school today. The mails are full of questionnaires and requests to other schools for new ideas to make the report card more meaningful. Right under the noses of the committee members the elementary school has developed the parent-teacher conference to supplement or replace the report card. Today the elementary school without parent-teacher conferences is the exception. The results are tremendous, and parents as well as teachers feel this is the best scheme yet devised.

True, a few high schools have "discovered" the parent-teacher conference but most are still looking at the magic "grade point" formula of the college to explain to mother how Johnny is doing in school.

Other standard practices of the elementary school will stand study by the secondary. The technique of the reading groups to take care of individual differences has worked well at the elementary level and could be adapted to various phases of secondary school instruction. The administrative structure of the elementary school which permits more flexibility of time and closer integration of subjects could well be studied by the secondary school. By breaking some of the traditional patterns of single periods for a subject, perhaps we could come out with some time blocks which would give greater flexibility and more meaningful learning experiences.

If we would reverse our view, perhaps the elementary school can offer solutions to some of our problems that the college pattern does not solve.

Letting Content of a Course Determine the Time Devoted to It

In 1892 the Committee of Ten came into existence and from it came the idea of the unit of credit based on the concept of equal time equivalents for equal credit. As this concept became established in the secondary school, the Carnegie unit became the all-powerful factor in determining content of a course. Some courses offer so many valuable educational experiences that they cannot be packed into a class that meets only five periods a week. As a result, much of the content must be deleted. On the other hand there are courses that have to be "padded" with questionable experiences in order to round out the time requirements for a full unit. Often a freshman course must cover such things as income tax or making formal application for a job long before the student has any interest in or need for such activities. These items cannot be delayed until the senior year when they could be meaningful because the "padding" is needed in the freshman course to "round it out."

If we could somehow break through the barrier of the Carnegie unit and build the courses from the other direction, perhaps we could operate a more effective program. Courses built on content of valuable experiences are unquestionably on a firmer foundation than those built just to fit within certain prescribed time limitations.

Planning Activities After They Are Over

Normally the student council "plans" the home-coming activities by being told by their sponsor how the celebration is to operate. The sponsor has had "experience" in this activity and knows better what will and what will not work. Naturally he is in a better situation to direct planning; the "creativity," "ingenuity," and "leadership" developed in the membership of the student council are what is rubbed off by having contact with the sponsor.

If the student council is really to plan the home-coming activities, if the council must have "experience" before it plans, then the simple solution is to plan the activities after they are over. Let the student council take the plans of the sponsor (and they must anyway) and operate the home-coming program. After it is over and the council has had the necessary "experiences," the planning should start. Every aspect of the program should be carefully scrutinized and changes made to improve it. The detailed plans should be written in full and filed away for next year's student council to put into operation. The new student council will follow the prescribed plans and then do its planning *after* the festivities are over.

Encouraging Students to Skip Class Periods

Another questionable practice is that of keeping the better student in the classroom all the time. Often an eleventh grader enters a course in American history with a better background of the content than most of the class will have after the course is completed. Instead of keeping this student "in step" with the rest of the class, he

should often be encouraged to be "out of step."

The boredom of going over old stuff can be deadly while more time spent *out of the class* by doing more intensive study of special aspects of the unit would probably be much more interesting and considerably more valuable. There is little question but that the superior student can profit more in the library on days when the class is discussing basic information.

Careful study of many of the established practices in our schools will undoubtedly reveal that we are actually doing them backward. Of course, tradition is a strong force to fight and often the problem of reversing a traditional pattern is more difficult than instituting a new idea. This may be the reason we are often more receptive to the new idea that does not disturb the traditional pattern. However, if a traditional pattern is obviously in the way of educational progress, we should have the courage to stand up and denounce it. But let's have a better plan to replace it and if a simple reversal of the old pattern does the job, we should not hesitate to work at it.

Verse on My Teaching Day

By MARTIN WOLFSON
Brooklyn, New York

Five teaching periods a day I have
Plus two sessions with my perfect class
Plus one cafeteria patrol period
Plus traffic patrol between periods . . .
Do my lines rhyme?
Do they have meter?
No, but they ooze sweat and blood. . .

Doctrines, Dogmas, and Authority

By DONALD W. ROBINSON

MAN IS VERY STUPID INDEED. He has always been limited and stupid. Today he appears even more stupid because his advances in some areas demonstrate that he possesses the mental genius to solve the most complex and baffling problems, but still lacks the common sense to apply this genius to the most pressing problem, the problem of social intelligence.

The implications of democracy and the findings of psychoanalysis suggest the possibility of a far greater degree of individual self-reliance than most of us have yet achieved.

If the urgency of the need for human engineering is self-evident on the interna-

tional scene, it is equally apparent on the personal level. Who is not acquainted with a person whose success is threatened or whose efficiency is critically impaired by hate, fear, worry, jealousy, tension, or some other symptom of his inability to live successfully with himself and with his fellows?

This does not mean that classroom teachers should become involved in attempts at therapy for disturbed students. It does mean that a major trend in education must continue to be the education of the emotions as well as the intellect, if for no other reason than that emotional health makes possible effective intellectual effort.

We hate to separate ourselves from the familiar, to leave behind that which we have learned to know and understand. Much as the adolescent girl may wish to cling to her dolls and the boy to hang on to his roller skates, the scholar is frequently reluctant to set aside the limited concept of discipline which has sustained him throughout his professional career. This is good and proper and inevitable. There must be resistance to every change just as surely as there must be change. A cruel and inexorable logic insists that we cannot change and at the same time remain the same. We cannot see our lollipop and suck it too.

We cannot accentuate such values as flexibility, self-reliance, and social sensitivity without jarring the traditional standards of formal discipline, respect, and obedience. Similarly in the curriculum we cannot add such subjects as international relations, business administration, electronics, or Oriental history without giving up something, somewhere.

Yet in part we can if we wish, if we are willing to accept the notion that what is one man's (or youth's) intellectual dessert

EDITOR'S NOTE

It was not possible to publish the complete manuscript submitted by the author, who is one of CH's regular contributors from San Francisco. In one of the sections not printed are some sentences worthy of mention:

"One by one the props of dependence are being removed in our culture. Parents, the printed word, the authority of the past, the authority of doctrines and dogmas of church and state and school are no longer infallible, even for the masses. In the education of each individual some of the props are removed before the emancipation has been completed. This loss of support results in an anxiety which is usually temporary as the learner adapts to one more level of independence.

"This groping for the next rung of emotional-intellectual independence is a period of confusion in the life of every person who experiences it, comparable to the confusion which the national culture, especially as represented by the public schools, is experiencing now."

is another man's poison. One of the tasks confronting American education is the effecting of a synthesis of the traditional aristocratic cultural values with the popular folk culture, which is basically less academic and less verbal, more artistic and more practical.

To make a serious effort at life adjustment education while striving to elevate the ambitions of all of our people toward the loftiest ideals of self-realization, in the tradition of Socrates, Rousseau, Thoreau, and Whitman, is not an unworthy goal.

It is in the finest American tradition to attempt the most worth-while goal in the interests of all of the people. To fail nobly in a proud attempt is sometimes counted better than to succeed miserably in an ordinary effort. This, it seems, is the essence of

democracy, the willingness to do and dare in the interests of extending more opportunities to more people.

The school devoted to a single set of rigid values implemented by a single academic curriculum with a single absolute standard of success served our interests admirably in the eighteenth century, as did the diplomatic policy of isolation. Neither will do today.

Those who are unable to accept change, unwilling to accept diversity of ability and of philosophy, or unaccustomed to thinking in a wide range of grays, are likely to live unhappy lives.

A people trained to think primarily in absolutes, right or wrong, we or they, capitalism or communism, friend or foe, is not likely to survive the century.



The Liverpool Way

By D. PATRICK HUGHES

Liverpool, New York

The success of the in-service educational program in the Liverpool Central Schools district depends on board policy, methods of identifying problems, and participation and involvement of professional staff.

Board policy provides budgetary allowances for in-service educational activities, released time, leaves of absences for conferences, conventions, the Central New York School Study Council, and visitations. The board has also made budgetary allowance for consultants.

Participation and involvement of staff members and administrators are insured in the following groups, which have an interlocking membership: the administrative council, the district planning committee, regular faculty meetings, and building cabinets. Grade-level committees in the district's seven school buildings engage in in-service activities.

Methods of identifying and solving problems include study and research (experimental situations, curriculum study), inter- and intraschool visitation,

conferences, and participation in the Central New York School Study Council.

All these spark building workshops, district-wide workshops, voluntary study groups, and graduate credit workshops.

These in turn lead to curriculum improvement, to study guides, to course outlines, to a wealth of appropriate resource materials and manuals; they lead to teacher growth, to the pooling and sharing of techniques and information; and they bring all the forces of the professional personnel of the school district to bear on the classic problem of taking every child where he is as he comes to us and going on from there and doing the very best that we can with him in terms of his own abilities, aptitudes, needs, and interests. And when the process is continuous year after year, as it is in the Liverpool district, we feel that curriculum improvement, teacher improvement, and resource improvement are translated into direct continuing benefits for the child.

ENGLISH ENRICHMENT

Challenging the Talented Before Junior High

By VIRGINIA DURHAM

WE HAVE HEARD a great deal about enriched and accelerated programs for the academically talented in the secondary school. Recent teaching experiences cause me to believe more challenging opportunities in English can and should be offered the academically talented even earlier—before they reach seventh grade.

It was my privilege to serve on the staff of the Webster Groves (Missouri) Elementary Summer School, under the direction of Dr. Herbert Schooling, superintendent of schools, and Marshall Brooks, director of the summer school. In addition to the developmental reading and arithmetic courses offered for the past six years, the curriculum for the summer of '59 had been expanded to include more advanced (or enriched) courses supplementing (but not overlapping) the content normally studied in the seventh and eighth grades.

My assignment was to teach talented fifth- and sixth-graders literature and creative writing. Theoretically, the ideal teaching

situation prevailed. Imagine teaching dream classes of twelve to fifteen instead of the customary thirty—and those twelve capable, interested, eager to learn. As the teacher you're on your own—no standard course of study, no prescribed texts, no competitive grading, no disciplinary problems. You set your own goals, write your curriculum, select your materials, evaluate pupil achievement as you wish. The school library, secretarial help, audio-visual aids, administrative co-operation and support are readily available.

It sounded so beautiful in theory. Practically, I held a few reservations. As a high-school teacher, I had never taught fifth- and sixth-graders. What books should I select? Would the youngsters really work in ninety-degree heat with no incentive of credit or grades? Would they write—creatively or otherwise? Could ten- and twelve-year-olds sit through ninety-minute classroom sessions five days a week for six weeks? But this story has a happy ending: the youngsters surpassed all expectations.

(Admittedly such "dream" conditions will not prove feasible during the full term. But summer programs can become real experimental laboratories where teachers can find opportunities to develop curriculum and methods adaptable to standard teaching situations.)

A glance at the folders introduced my new pupils. I was to teach two sections totaling twenty-four pupils coming from twelve elementary schools. Eight pupils had just finished fifth grade; sixteen others had completed sixth and were to enter junior high in September. All had been recommended by their classroom teachers and

EDITOR'S NOTE

Ordinarily we publish articles that have pertinence to teaching, counseling, and administration in junior and senior high schools. If you look only at the title of this piece, it might seem that The Clearing House is changing its policy. Such is not the case, as you will find out by reading Mrs. Durham's article, which deals with accelerated summer classes in English for pupils entering junior high school. Added to that, she is outside of summer session, a teacher at the Webster Groves (Missouri) High School.

principals and had elected to take the course.

Their ability was apparent from the start, although exact statistical comparisons are not possible because the public and parochial referring schools did not supply equivalent test data. As an indication, however, most recent Otis beta scores for nine pupils revealed a median I.Q. of approximately 130, with scores ranging from 114 to 156. Data on the other students followed similar patterns.

Individual achievement was equally high. The elementary schools had furnished for each pupil language and over-all scores on various achievement tests, citing most frequently those scores derived from the Stanford or California achievement batteries. Median language achievement was grade 9, or three to four years above grade placement. The range in language achievement extended from grade 7 to grade 11 plus.

With knowledge of my pupils' reading level, I could select materials for study. Total time was distributed about evenly between literature and composition, though each was used as a springboard for the other and the two areas were not taught separately. Units of study combined a thematic and a typical approach. Because the students' initial compositions revealed broad interests in reading, music, and art, I decided upon a sort of "junior humanities" program. Our most serious study of literature centered around two of mankind's greatest creative periods—the Golden Age of fifth century Athens as presented in art and mythology, and the European Renaissance, revolving around Shakespeare's *A Midsummer Night's Dream*.

Our major writing project was production of *The Slate*, a fifty-page offset anthology representing typical light fiction, essay, and verse written by the students. One day we sent some light verse to the art classes. We were delighted when Miss Charlotte Pickel's students began illustrating some of

the short stories and poems. As a result, the finished anthology represents work of students in both art and creative writing.

Because a summer course must be fun, we began with a consideration of humor—what is funny and how authors create humor. After listening to records of Ogden Nash and James Thurber, we began writing our own accounts of humorous home and school situations. Traveling from slapstick to satire and self-parody, we considered various levels of humor. We could find incongruities and the use of language for humorous effect not only in "Pogo" and "Li'l Abner" but in Carroll and Tarkington and Mark Twain. By examining limericks, familiar essays, and short stories, we could work with varying literary types.

Humor also included tall tales and American regional literature. From the familiar legendary favorites we proceeded to lesser knowns like Sam Patch and John Henry. Discussion of modern folk heroes led to discoveries of similar personality traits in the heroes of classical tales. After reading portions of the *Odyssey*, we were soon observing mythological allusions not only in literature and art but in modern advertising.

Comparative reading proved popular—for instance, the ancient story of Daedalus and Icarus, and Trowbridge's modern verse, "Darius Green and His Flying-Machine"; Edith Hamilton's version of Pegasus and Bellerophon, and Longfellow's poem, "Pegasus in Pound." Hercules appeared in Tintoretto's Renaissance paintings, Hawthorne's tales of mythology, and pupils' etymological study of English words derived from Greek myths. Mythology provided a good stimulus for creative writing because youngsters enjoyed producing their own tales explaining natural wonders. Then too, the *pourquoi* stories are shorter and technically less difficult than the "real" short story.

Saroyan, O. Henry, and Poe launched our consideration of the short story as a

unified work involving character, setting, a problem, and two or three events leading to a distinct climax. Before actual writing, we devised simple plans for original short stories revolving around home or school problems. Taffy one day produced an original story depicting a young boy's betrayal by his friend. Once the concept was thrown into discussion, fifth- and sixth-graders furnished another example, Judas Iscariot. With a minimum of guidance, they moved on to betrayal of country, recalling Edward Hale's "The Man without a Country," which they already knew. Then turning the idea around, they considered stories of devotion, sacrifice and martyrdom, citing Jo in *Little Women* and Joan of Arc.

The youngsters were also interested in poetry. Still unself-conscious for the most part, not too concerned about boy-girl relationships, they particularly liked imaginative literature. After reading and sometimes memorizing their favorite narrative poems—they liked to memorize typical junior-high favorites by Noyes, Whittier, Longfellow, Guiterman, Browning, Benét—they moved on to the simpler lyrics of Dickinson and Sandburg. As the students who wrote poetry became more interested in technique, I introduced denotation, connotation, and elementary consideration of various metrical effects.

Preliminary work with mythology and poetry helped lay the groundwork for *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, which we studied in the Folger Library paperback edition. We began with library work and reports on Renaissance scientists, explorers, and painters. After sketching the Elizabethan theater and briefly discussing Shakespeare's life, we proceeded to the play itself. Although many people laugh at introducing Shakespeare to children so young, truly they loved the play. Academic work included paraphrasing the more difficult passages, discussing a series of study questions, and rather detailed testing in which the youngsters showed up very well.

The real fun came with the oral reading—"hamming" Bottom to the hilt, relishing the fairy imagery and Puck's practical jokes, discussing "What fools these mortals be." Two sixth-grade girls reading the quarrel between Helena and Hermia nearly clawed each other's eyes, and both boys and girls outbottomed Bottom in clamoring to read all the parts. When Ricki brought in a children's recording of *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, the class unanimously rejected the simple fairy version in favor of Shakespeare himself and the Mendelssohn Overture, brought in by another student.

Students liked the play so well that on the last day of school we ended up presenting the Pyramus and Thisbe scene for parents. Student-improvised costumes and props were a wonder to behold. Schoolgirls' red or black tights with tunics provided the perfect garb for Elizabethan courtiers. While Lion capered through ninety-five degree heat in a moth-eaten fur coat, Thisbe bedecked herself in a yellow mop wig. Discovering the bloody mantle—liberally daubed with catsup—Pyramus dramatically stabbed himself with a Masonic sword. Titania gracefully flitted about in hastily constructed cardboard wings and a ballerina skirt left over from dancing school. Each class vied with the other in concocting costumes until we were doubled over in laughter. . . .

Apparently we can expect and require of these gifted students far more work than we generally assign. At the beginning of the summer course, no one batted an eye when I suggested for work outside of class the reading of at least one book a week and some writing nearly every day. We cannot underestimate these children. During the summer months, many actually read a book a day; the important point is to encourage their reading more mature selections. To see the youngsters "follow through" all assignments with no incentive of credit or grades—although I did give an occasional test—was tremendously exciting.

At first nearly everything produced by the academically talented seems exceptional. Gradually, however, teachers learn that much of the work is really only mediocre—according to the students' real potential. Like the rest of us, the academically talented will "get by" as easily as possible, yet at the same time lose all respect for the teachers who allow them to do so. To acquire the needed breadth, we teachers must constantly study both subject and method.

As always, in teaching literature and composition to talented youngsters, probably I learned far more than I was able to teach. Yet high-school teachers and parents frequently question the apathy and noncooperation of capable youngsters. What happens to the curiosity and "wonder?" Why do so many children "hate" English? The

answer seems apparent when we consider the endless repetition of familiar ground, the constant lack of challenge for children already achieving three to four years above grade placement.

The criticism is directed toward no one home or school, no particular parent or teacher. To the contrary, the existing high level of interest and achievement represents the careful sowing of seeds on the part of many parents and teachers. Nevertheless, I am convinced we have barely scratched the surface until we can devote additional time and materials, more study and research, to the cultivation of our most prized asset, our talented youth. Certainly the privilege of teaching two such classes in the Webster Groves Elementary Summer School has opened doors for me.



An Act of Learning

By ALBERT NISSMAN
Levittown, Pennsylvania

It was Mary's first experience in an American school. She had just come from Scotland when she was assigned to my eighth-grade English class in 1952 in the Creighton Elementary School, Philadelphia. She was timid and quiet and made no contribution to class discussion.

I felt certain that she was intelligent. Her written work was fine. But the girl was too much within herself. Fun and laughter produced no smile on her teen-age face. Furthermore, she seemed to eye me with suspicion. This situation puzzled me to the point where I had to find an answer. I had private talks with Mary. There, I explained the situation. She then revealed causes for it.

It seems that the classroom in Scotland is one of austere formality. Or at least hers was. The teacher is a purely professional person who displays no warmth. Lectures are delivered impersonally and gauged by the clock. The teacher is always aloof, surrounding his profession and his person with a cold dignity.

Mary continued to tell me that my classroom offered such contrast that she found it difficult to adjust. She couldn't understand my friendliness and humor and doubted my sincerity. She said that she couldn't have confidence in me for I was not like the teachers in Scotland. I then explained to Mary that it was my feeling that a teacher is more than a conveyor-belt of information. I told her that I wanted to help guide youngsters and to enjoy their friendliness and friendship.

About a month later Mary had reached the point where she joined in discussion, participated in laughter, displayed a sense of humor, and even showed confidence in me as a teacher. The ultimate was achieved in May when Mary came to me and said, "Mr. Nissman, I'd like to spend the coming summer reading. Would you prepare a list of twenty-five books or so for me to read. I know you can help me." As she walked away, she shyly said, "Mr. Nissman, I really enjoy your classes now. I like the friendly atmosphere."

Prospective Teachers Have Fears

By HAROLD S. ANDERSON

WE DO NOT HAVE ENOUGH well-qualified teachers now to go around, and with skyrocketing school enrollments, we face even a more crucial deficit. Of course, it would be easy to point a finger at one obvious cause—the teacher-education institutions—and say that they just aren't doing their job, that they should be producing enough teachers, and that if they would just produce more teachers each year, there would be enough well-trained teachers to go around. There is a shred of truth to this contention. But unfortunately, only so many youngsters are attracted to the teaching profession. Teacher education institutions are taking all comers. And the bars to the profession are not high. Teachers colleges are bending over backwards to prepare as many as they can of the youngsters who are interested in teaching and have a minimum of the natural qualifications of the teacher.

Actually, teacher education institutions are preparing a great many prospective

teachers each year. During 1957, about 109,000 new teachers were graduated in the nation, and in 1958 about 116,000. But there are a lot of slips between preparation and occupation. Some of these prospective teachers, particularly the men, are drained off into industry before they ever take teaching positions. Some of the women become housewives before they get into classrooms. Perhaps much of this loss is inevitable. We could be more concerned about those persons who, after taking their college preparation, actually enter teaching but leave it after a short period of service, often only one year.

I am continually appalled by the number of people I meet who, upon learning that I am a teacher, volunteer that they taught something or other for one year. They are now in a different vocation, usually a nonprofessional occupation. These are ex-teachers, educated and trained persons, possessing experience; but they are not teaching.

Upon first thought, we might presume that these people have chosen jobs which are more financially rewarding than teaching. Obviously, teachers' salaries are not what they should be. Some of these ex-teachers took more lucrative jobs, but many of them would by now be making more money if they had stayed in teaching. These ex-teachers are, by and large, in nonprofessional positions. Although the figure does not reflect level of education possessed, the average earnings for the nonprofessional wage earner in the United States is about \$4,000. The average teacher's salary is about \$4,650. Although money must be considered one factor affecting the exodus of these people from the teaching profession, it cannot be considered the only one.

If we turn to psychological theory for a clue, we could find that people tend to con-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Many agree that beginning teachers have anxieties which need attention if they are to build their self-confidence in a teaching career. Otherwise, considerable teacher turnover may occur. And if many teachers leave the profession after once embarking on a career, how can we ever catch up with the necessity for securing a sufficient number of teachers to staff our schools?

The author, who is professor of education and head of teacher education at Southern State Teachers College, Springfield, South Dakota, reports his views on the role of teacher-preparation institutions in helping to meet the teacher shortage that now exists in many sections of the country.

tinue to do what for them results in success. We might infer that these ex-teachers were not successful in their short trial at teaching, else they would have continued in the profession. For them, teaching did not lead to the attainment of their goals, so they switched to another means of earning a livelihood. Further, it is unlikely that for the majority of them the decision to leave the profession was made rationally, although it may have been well rationalized. These ex-teachers didn't like teaching. Although they evidently intended to teach—after all, they did take teacher-education programs in college—their feelings were changed; they didn't make a smooth adjustment to their role in the profession during the time in which they tried that role.

This train of thought leads toward a possible course of action to prevent this waste of teaching potential. If more of these people who are already educated for the profession would learn to like it the first year they teach, a considerable portion of our teacher shortage would be solved. How can we help them make a smoother adjustment during the early days of their trying out in the profession? How can we help them learn to like teaching so that they persist and become experienced, contributing teachers?

To solve this problem, we would need to know what perceptions beginning teachers develop which, for some of them, makes teaching undesirable. One means to this information would be to ask the ex-teachers themselves why they quit teaching. It is doubtful that this would produce valid information. The answers that have been given to me when I have asked that question have been highly suspect. They smack of rationalization. I could not consider these answers sufficiently reliable to provide a basis upon which a course of preventive action could be built.

In a recent attempt to find some leads to the solution of this problem, a different technique was used. Information was gath-

ered from prospective teachers rather than ex-teachers. This procedure was based upon the assumption that some combination of perceptions, perhaps largely those we would term attitudinal rather than factual, develop in some beginning teachers which to them are thwarting and frustrating rather than rewarding and that these perceptions might be closely allied with the perceptions about which prospective teachers feel some degree of anxiety.

In the study here reported, a small group of forty-two teachers college seniors was used as the sample. Most of the persons in the sample intended to begin teaching in the fall of 1959. Each college senior was asked to submit on paper one aspect of his first teaching position about which he presently was worried. Forty respondents submitted one aspect of concern, one respondent submitted two aspects, and another respondent submitted three. Thus a total of forty-five statements was obtained. All forty-five statements were used in the study. The statements were paraphrased and grouped according to categories, as indicated in column one of Table I (below). The number of students whose statements seemed to fit in each category are present in column two of the table.

The data as grouped reveal some rather definite tendencies. To the extent that the concerns of this small group are typical of prospective teachers, it should be possible

TABLE I
FORTY-FIVE CATEGORIZED STATEMENTS OF FORTY-TWO
PROSPECTIVE HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS WITH
FREQUENCY AND PER CENT OF RESPONSE

Category of Concern	Number of Responses	Per Cent
Ability to effect learning	18	40.0
Ability to maintain classroom control	13	28.9
Contractual stipulations	8	17.8
Orientation to the school system	3	6.7
Faculty relations	2	4.4
Miscellaneous	1	2.2
<i>Total</i>	45	100.0

to plan a course of action which would effect a smoother psychological transition of beginning teachers into the profession. The obligation for action would seem to lie in the hands of two groups of people within the profession: Some things the school administrators can do to help these beginning teachers; other things can be done for them in teachers colleges. If through these combined efforts, young teachers can be helped to find the first year of teaching a satisfying and successful experience, we will have a better supply of effective teachers.

Effecting Learning

A greater proportion of the students showed concern about their ability to effect learning than about any other phase of teaching. They were worried about "getting the material across," "keeping their subjects interesting," "providing incentive to students to work," and similar aspects of the main instructional task. Eighteen of the forty-five statements, or 40 per cent, indicated concern of the individual for his instructional ability. The frequency of response may to some extent reflect the importance held by instruction in these prospective teachers' perceived role of the teacher.

This is certainly not an area which is neglected in the teacher-education institutions. Colleges devote a considerable portion of the prospective teacher's preparation to his general and specific subject-matter background. Further, the professional series courses, including student teaching, are largely aimed at developing instructional ability and should allay the anxieties for this area of teaching. But evidently what we do is not enough or is not the right thing to do. Prospective teachers at the end of their period of undergraduate preparation are still anxious about this aspect of teaching. They will still be anxious about it when they begin their first job; their experiences at that

time will influence strongly whether they stay in the teaching profession for a year or a lifetime.

Maintaining Discipline

A substantial number of prospective teachers in the group were concerned over their ability to maintain appropriate control of students. Thirteen of the forty-five, over one-fourth of the statements, indicated anxiety over the matter of "discipline." Many of the statements, when analyzed closely, revealed that these people were not only concerned with their ability to maintain rapport with students but also were concerned with such matters as the amount of backing available from administrators on disciplinary matters, the standards of behavior to which they must hold their students, and desirable out-of-school relationships with students.

It is not surprising that discipline is of great concern to prospective teachers. For one thing, they can remember with startling clarity their own behavior as public school students.

But more important, instruction in matters of discipline for prospective teachers is generally ineffective in teacher-preparation institutions. This deficiency is not entirely remediable. Maintaining desirable classroom rapport, otherwise known as "keeping good discipline," is an individual matter: it differs from area to area, school to school, administrator to administrator, teacher to teacher. And teachers college education professors must to some extent deal in generalities to allow for such an array of variables. I tell my students that they will have a considerable edge on "keeping good discipline," if they can keep their students continually engaged in learning experiences which seem worth while to the students. But you and I both know that such a rule of thumb does not fill the entire bill.

Some people probably expect that student teaching should provide a prospective

teacher with sufficient experience to build up this confidence in maintaining rapport in the classroom. Unfortunately it too often does not. And there are good reasons why it does not. In most student teaching programs, the supervising teacher actually maintains student control even without being present in the room. Some supervising teachers seldom or never leave the room in which a student teacher is "teaching." The student teacher is thus never actually "in charge" of the group; he is merely the instructor. In a few situations, particularly where student teaching is organized on an internship basis, the student teaching experience will allay much anxiety about discipline.

It seems likely that the administrative and supervisory staff of a beginning teacher's first school can do more to help him with his worries about discipline than can any other agency.

Contractual Stipulations

Some prospective teachers seem to be concerned about aspects of their jobs which should be clearly defined as matters of fact rather than speculation. The statements which reveal anxieties in this area were grouped under the heading "contractual stipulations." They appear to be questions which should be clearly answered by administrators before the teacher's contract is signed. Such questions as "How many classes will I have to teach?" "How much extraclass activity work will be expected of me?" "Will I have to teach in an area for which I am unprepared?" "What will be the salary schedule and increments?" should not be matters to worry about as a teacher begins and continues his first year.

Some administrators find it advantageous to keep details of work load and remuneration "flexible." This flexibility can be used to "buy" teachers at lower salaries, extend raises in pay only when it is necessary in order to keep teachers, pile extra duties on

the conscientious and willing teachers, and hire teachers who might not accept a position if all details were clarified. This practice may be handy but it doesn't promote a smooth adjustment of new teachers into the profession.

Perhaps the representatives of the teaching profession in colleges could be more explicit in warning a teacher to find out all such details of a position before accepting it. Certainly administrators could help reduce anxiety in matters of work load and remuneration by clarifying carefully for each new teacher the details of the contracted position.

Orientation to the School

A relatively small proportion of the concerns of the group surveyed dealt with the types of problems which are commonly handled in the orientation programs for new teachers in the schools with which I am acquainted. Only three of the forty-five statements seemed to fit into the orientation-to-the-school-system category.

The short orientation program of one or two days which commonly precedes the opening of a school term is generally limited to the gross machinery of school operation. No one would contend that this focus is wrong. It is undoubtedly necessary for teachers to understand the excuse system, reporting procedure, forms to be completed, where to draw supplies, and other details of organization. Effective orientation in these aspects of a school promotes smooth administration. But let us not assume that these matters are of vital importance to new teachers. Chances are that these details are of most concern to administrators and teachers who have been on the job for some time. New teachers are more concerned about other things.

Faculty Relations

Although one might expect a much greater frequency of anxiety in this area, a very small proportion of the statements

dealt with this aspect of human relations. Two prospective teachers seemed to look forward with concern to their personal adjustment in the school situation. One person wondered, "Will I fit in with the other teachers?" and another, "Will I be able to get along with the superintendent?" Considering the relatively small amount of concern for this matter of adjustment, we may assume that the few teas and dinners which are commonly staged at the beginning of a school term plus a small amount of friendly attention by administrators will suffice to allay these anxieties. Most administrators recognize possible problems of this nature and care for them rather well.

Miscellaneous Concerns

One concern seemed to stand alone without fitting into any of the groups. This statement, submitted by an industrial arts

major, was paraphrased, "Will money be available for good equipment?" With a bit of imagination, this statement could perhaps have been placed in the category, "effecting learning," or perhaps "contractual stipulations." Considering its singularity, we should perhaps not be too concerned about it.

To the extent that the sample group was typical, these then are the concerns of prospective teachers—their ability to effect learning, their ability to maintain acceptable pupil behavior (discipline), their load of responsibility and the remuneration for it, getting oriented to the school functions, and getting along with other staff members. If beginning teachers continue to worry about these and perhaps other matters, their adjustment to the profession will not be readily attained, and we will continue to lose too many of them.



Why Teachers Are Underpaid

Why are teachers underpaid? Without comment we present the most commonly heard reasons given for the lack of professional economic status of teachers.

1. Historically, teachers in the United States have been underpaid, and people accept this. School "will keep" anyway. It always has.
2. The teaching income is pretty good for a single woman entering teaching. Teaching is still largely a woman's occupation.
3. School boards may fail to accept teachers contention that they have a right to appear before them to make salary requests.
4. Some school superintendents fail to exercise leadership as representatives of the staff in salary negotiations.
5. We cannot make a case for higher salaries arguing that taxes are low.
6. The laws of supply and demand cannot operate in favor of teachers because many unqualified teachers enter the profession through substandard or emergency certification.
7. It is difficult to get effective spokesmen to serve on association salary committees.
8. Teachers are getting very discouraged and won't battle any more.
9. Taxpayers' groups and other community organizations frequently oppose increasing school tax rates.
10. Teachers are not in frequent communication with the school board members. Often teachers see their boards only once a year at salary time.
11. The desperate need for additional classrooms during the past decade since the close of World War II has strained school budgets.
12. Lack of tenure in some localities makes teachers fearful of making salary requests.
13. Teachers will accept less than they deserve, and the school board knows it.
14. Interest in a merit pay plan is delaying progress toward professional salaries.
15. . . . Too many teachers . . . are not dependent on their teaching salary as the major source of family income.—From the *Georgia Education Journal*.



Tricks of the Trade



Edited by TED GORDON

TAKE A TRIP: Various publications report travel projects from the grades through university graduate classes. These have similar marks of identity: working out alternate means of transportation, budgeting, knowledge of customs and cultures, use of travel folders. Emphasis can be upon geography, economics, sociology, science, transportation.

IT FIGURES: To square a number ending in 5 multiply the number or numbers before the 5 by one more than that number and then annex 25. Example: 45×45 would become 4×5 or 20 and with the "25" annexed give the result of 2,025. Another: $1,005 \times 1,005$ would become 100×101 with the 25 annexed, or 1,010,025. Not a new idea but always good.—M. C. VOLPEL, State Teachers College, Towson 4, Maryland.

SCIENCE STIMULATION: "To build a living museum or to bring a dead one back to life," organize students in general science classes into a curators' club with specific tasks of cleaning cages, feeding animals, setting up and maintaining aquariums, repairing tanks, building cages, setting up new exhibits, planning and painting new murals, and so on.—Full details in "A School Nature Museum," by Evelyn Morholt, Selected Science Teaching Ideas of 1952, National Science Teachers Association.

COLLECTING EXAMINATION BLOSSOMS: How often do teachers say: "If I could only remember some of the howlers on test papers." Obtain a small notebook. Rule the pages with the headings you want: e.g., Howler, Name of Student, Grade, Subject, Date. This will enable you to have many of them on hand within a

short time.—CYRIL C. O'BRIEN, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

THIS WAY, PLEASE! Hosts and hostesses at cafeteria tables, if trained for their jobs by homemaking teachers or other qualified persons, amazingly improve manners, add to the pleasures of eating at school, and serve to educate fellow pupils for family life, party giving, and improved school acquaintanceships.—C. H. WOODRUFF, Long Beach, California.

CAREER COSTUME PARTY: Whether as a class project or as a social event, students can stage a career costume party in which they come to school attired either in the clothes and equipment of their fathers' vocations or in the apparel and with the "tools" of their own desired trades or professions. Naturally if the real articles are not available, make-believe substitutes can be both hilarious and instructional.

ORIENTATION VIA AUTOBIOGRAPHY: Each September the seventh-grade pupils who come to our high school from five different elementary schools write and read their autobiographies. This gives the teacher an opportunity to learn something about each pupil, and also builds friendlier relationships among the pupils.—BESSIE HONEYWELL, F. D. Roosevelt High School, Hyde Park, New York.



EDITOR'S NOTE: Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Brief, original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE.

Letter to a New English Teacher

By JUNE BERRY

NOW THAT YOU HAVE FULFILLED ALL REQUIREMENTS in your English major and finished your last education class, you are ready to begin teaching in September. You have a wonderful background in Milton, the Romantic Period, Old English, and the English novel; now to pour your knowledge into the eager-seeking students in your tenth-grade English classes.

But wait a minute! Are your tenth-grade students ready for the experiences which you have been having with Milton and Chaucer and Shakespeare? Have they lived long enough to understand the emotions and circumstances described by the masters? Are they ready for Shakespeare's vocabulary? or Milton's philosophy? Are they all hepped up about literature and the classics as you are? Or are they more interested in being popular, going steady, hot rods, understanding their parents, and having fun?

Remember what you heard in that Ed. Psych. class. Let's see, there were "Imperative Needs of Youth," and "Basic Drives of Youth," and "Developmental Tasks." Well, does Shakespeare fill the need with a teen-ager which might help him to accept

his physique? or become emotionally independent of his parents? or select and prepare for an occupation? Do any of the great works of literature really have anything to say to the average teen-ager?

Something has to give. Should you scrap Shakespeare because he doesn't interest your class? Skip the classics because the vocabulary is too complex? No, let's begin with materials on a less complex level of vocabulary, style, and character portrayal, and lead up to Shakespeare. Perhaps construct a mental ladder to lead your boys and girls to Shakespeare and the more difficult works.

The books you begin with shouldn't be too low on the scale—that is, they must be sound as far as literary quality is concerned. Here you can use the criteria from your notes on the English novel. There should be a conflict or struggle of opposing forces. The characters must be real and should show growth or development. Setting and construction should be considered. Does the style suit the story? Is the idiom true to life, yet not too difficult to understand?

Next, the material you select must have important ideas or values. For example, some ideas recognized by society as valuable are (1) that honesty is the best policy; (2) that we must adjust to change rather than fight it; (3) that money can be a false criteria of success; (4) that people of all races are fundamentally equal; (5) that hard work is necessary for true success; and (6) that people are important.

If the book has great ideas and they are presented in good literary form, the next step is to decide if it appeals to the adolescent. Adolescents are interested in many things—understanding themselves, understanding the opposite sex, breaking away from parental authority, developing a phi-

EDITOR'S NOTE

We suppose that an article on the problems of a beginning teacher ought to appear in the May or September issue of The Clearing House. On the other hand, our readers tell us that CH is useful as reference material for months and months after publication. From this point of view, it makes some sense to read about new teachers now and not in May—that is, if you really read it now.

The author is librarian in the Laboratory School, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.

losophy of life, and learning a vocation. Capitalize on these in choosing books for teenagers.

Many modern authors have written novels for young people with the theme of understanding one's self. *Clementine* by Peggy Goodin, *Seventeenth Summer* by Maureen Daly, and *Double Date* by Rosamond Du Jardin are a few sure-fire books for girls. Boys like *Call It Courage* by Armstrong Sperry, *All-American* by John R. Tunis, and *Hot Rod* by Gregor Felsen. In addition to the great theme or idea there is the element of adventure or mystery which adolescents crave. For learning about vocations, the books by Howard M. Brier and Montgomery Atwater are good for boys, and

those by Helen Boylston and Adele De Leeuw are popular with girls.

If you will read a few of these modern teen-age books yourself and judge them according to literary merit, great truths, and appeal to the needs and interests of youth, you will see that they can start your students on the way to reading Shakespeare. There may be many steps or books before they reach Shakespeare, but each step brings them nearer.

Rather than planting seeds of dislike and distaste, let's lead students gradually until they are ready to understand and appreciate great literature. Then, and only then, should they begin to read it. Good luck in September!



In Behalf of Student Teacher

The classroom teacher—the critic teacher—can be of immeasurable assistance to the professional growth of the student teacher. But, if the critic teacher is not a master teacher, then the teaching example he provides has little value. And, even if the critic teacher is moved to offer guidance and stimulation, his own professional obligations restrict his opportunities to do so. He undoubtedly has a full pupil load and the usual extra-curricular duties to which he owes first allegiance.

The primary responsibility falls to the supervisor of student teaching and logically so. He is the student teacher's "professor"; he will do the summing up, make the final evaluation. But he, too, may be deplorably limited in the time he can give to each student teacher. His own academic load is often such as to make the supervision of student teaching a secondary obligation.

In a particular historical context Martin Luther voiced those dramatic words "Here I Stand" and defied the authorities to silence him. In a different sense here stands the student teacher, not defiant but inquisitive, receptive to the ideas of the authorities with whom he works. What shall be done with and for him? What conditions will provide him the most invigorating experience?

He should, of course, be relatively free of other commitments. Otherwise he will begin his teaching career with inadequate preparation and a feeling

that student teaching is not too important. But the most consequential element in the whole experience is evaluation. From the time the student teacher enters the classroom he should be immersed in the process of evaluation. In individual conference or group discussion he should be stimulated, first of all, to discover, understand and probe the rationale and approach the critic teacher brings to bear in the classroom.

As the student teacher develops a unit of work and begins to assume more responsibility in the classroom, the need for evaluation snowballs. The supervisor needs to be forever pushing him to examine the observable results of his teaching and encouraging him to evolve a logical rationale for his own approach. Whatever else accrues to him from this experience, he should be more fully equipped with some firm convictions about what constitutes good teaching. The supervisor can be an active catalyst in the development of such convictions.

If energetic, professional leadership is provided the student teacher, he can enjoy a most productive experience.

But what is said in his behalf should also be said to him—he must feed into this experience the raw material out of which will come a sensitive, effective teacher.—RICHARD L. WARREN in the *Peabody Journal of Education*.

IN PRAISE OF BAGLEY

By WILLIAM J. PAULI

WHEN WILLIAM C. BAGLEY DIED in 1946 American professional education lost one of its greatest friends and its severest critic. As a friend, Bagley worked tirelessly to elevate teaching to the level of a profession. As a critic, he was uncompromising and unsurpassed in exposing flaws and weaknesses in modern educational theory and practice.

Bagley fought for a strong teaching profession and a strong educational theory. He lived long enough to see one goal near achievement and the other further removed. Ironically, as the teaching profession became stronger, educational theory and practice became more enfeebling, to use Bagley's own adjective.

Bagley's death marked the end of one era in education and the beginning of a new one. The age in which he worked and wrote was an age of change, of revolt, and of promise. The universal school became a reality. Exploitation of child labor was abolished. A great depression upset many previously held notions of education, politics, and government. There was a conscious striving for change in all fields in which man labored. Two great wars and two new

systems of government, both hostile to the American form, accelerated the process of change.

To meet the challenge of necessary change, two giants appeared on the educational horizon. One gave education a philosophy; the other gave it a science. Each spawned a host of willing workers and followers who flooded the land with their gospel and their measuring stick.

Bagley was overshadowed by the two giants, Dewey and Thorndike, who were his colleagues on the same campus. He tried to learn from them the best that each had to offer, but he emphasized old-fashioned educational values, which he felt were being systematically destroyed by overzealous followers of Dewey.

In a nation as diverse as the United States it was a foregone conclusion that other philosophies and psychologies would arise to compete with those fostered by Dewey and Thorndike. Gestaltists challenged connectionists and behaviorists, as traditionalists and essentialists fought progressivists. Students in competing psychological fields were kept busy grinding out theses and dissertations, while students who labored in philosophical vineyards devised ingenious questionnaires to give their side a democratic base. Never has research come forth with so many contradictory answers.

Educational journals reflected this competition of ideas and opinions, and faithfully reported the findings of research. Research which was conclusive belabored the obvious. Research on significant problems resulted in insignificant answers. One could always choose between inconclusive research and contradictory opinion.

The man who saw most clearly the direction education was taking was William C. Bagley. He was the first important educator

EDITOR'S NOTE

There's no question about it in our judgment: William Bagley was an educator whose work had great effect on American education. As the author says, Bagley deserves more recognition professionally from the profession he helped build and serve. Read this article, and you'll not have to say: "Bagley? Who is he?"

The writer is teacher of mathematics, Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, San Jose, California. He writes: "This manuscript is my attempt to honor William C. Bagley."

to warn against the false idolatry of the I.Q. He believed that genius is a title won and not a gift bestowed. For over thirty-five years Bagley was the supreme critic of every kind of educational folly. He was particularly harsh against pseudo-science and all perversions of democracy. Much of the educational foolishness and nonsense in his day paraded either under the cloak of science or the mantle of democracy.

What Bagley fought against the hardest was the notion that learning was exclusively the function of the teacher and the pupil's environment. He believed in the old adage that there is no royal road to learning. He read with dismay the modern version that no learning can take place unless the road is made royal. Where so many educators labored to make learning an objectively determined phenomenon, Bagley over and over again invoked the power of the human will, the subjective element. What most educators neglected, Bagley emphasized. What most of them emphasized, he held up to careful scrutiny.

As one example of Bagley's foresight, in 1933 when the Russians abandoned their twelve-year experiment with progressive education, Bagley hailed this step as proof of the weakness of the child-centered school. The return of the Russian schools to sequential learning and the re-establishment of the authority of the teacher in the classroom was interpreted by Bagley not as the imminent collapse of Soviet power but as the beginning of its consolidation. What Bagley saw in embryonic form twenty-five years ago the whole world now sees in matured form racing across the sky.

In the midst of the great changes taking place in American education during the twenties and thirties, Bagley remained steadfast in seeking unifying concepts in American education to keep pace with technological and social needs. He was not opposed to necessary change. He was willing to concede that progressive education had contributed much to making school a more

pleasant place in which to learn and in recognizing that children needed to be respected as individuals. He was not willing, however, to throw out much that others insisted on throwing out merely because it represented change. He felt that the human race in its historical struggle had achieved certain fairly permanent conquests and had discovered important truths which should be cherished and preserved.

Bagley succeeded in gathering around him a number of influential educators for whom he became chief spokesman. In 1938 Bagley and the few men who shared his convictions almost launched a new movement in education. The time was inopportune and the movement died before it was even decently launched. The group, whose ideological spokesman was Bagley, called itself the Essentialist Committee for the Advancement of American Education. Bagley wrote the educational manifesto of the committee.* The Essentialist platform was scorned as a reactionary philosophy by prominent educational leaders. Whether Bagley and his group were right in maintaining that education consisted of certain essentials, and whether the essentials they upheld are indeed of a permanent nature, can be judged better today than in the period when the platform was first launched. It will repay teachers to read and to study this important historical document. Even those who disagree with Bagley will recognize that he represents a far higher type of educational critic than the kind with which we are today becoming familiar.

Less than ten years after the Essentialist platform had been published, Bagley died and, a few years later, the man who has been blamed for all our educational sins also passed away. With the deaths of Dewey and Bagley the educational age in which they labored came to a close. The first half

* William C. Bagley, "An Essentialist's Platform for the Advancement of American Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIV (April, 1938), 241-256.

of the present century was deeply involved in a search for new foundations. Educational leaders worked and wrote either as explorers bent upon new discoveries, or as missionaries determined to convert the natives in the newly discovered land. Some, like Bagley, remained attached to the old, familiar landmarks, and doubted that the new, exotic dishes contained as much nutritional value as the old, traditional diet.

The second half of the century opened with educational leaders' staging periodic revival meetings and refining the slogans and educational objectives which the first half century created. The educational frontiers have now been fully extended and discovered and the important foundations have been fully laid. All that remains to be done now is to supply teachers with the necessary road maps and to let them travel joyously to all parts of the land with their young charges. Educational criticism within the profession, a characteristic of the first half century, is now replaced with criticism from without. Inside the profession we have nothing to criticize except reluctant converts who fail to display the necessary zeal and enthusiasm.

Outside the profession education has become deluged by a new crop of critics and saviors. These critics come from all walks of life. Some are ex-teachers who must need confess and earn a few extra dollars to supplement their nonteaching income. Others are scholars who insist that teaching requires practically no method. Many of them have a firsthand knowledge of schools and education by virtue of the fact that they did go to school at one time and they do insist that they are educated.

The desperation of some of our lay critics is most touching. One retired lady journalist went up to her attic and dusted off all her precious McGuffey readers, which she is presenting as gifts to the schools in her neighborhood. . . . An admiral who builds nuclear submarines surfaced for a few weeks to look for young, future nuclear submarine

builders and found so few that it troubled him sorely.

The circle of educational critics has included some of America's most distinguished scientists, whose opinions cannot be treated lightly. The remedy they suggest may not be the best, but the sickness they see undoubtedly requires treatment. . . . A popular weekly picture magazine discovered a boy in the Midwest who was a lonely genius and who was neglected by the school. Many of our critics advocate an intensive search with mental Geiger counters to find geniuses. After we find them, we must feed them a solid diet on fast-moving assembly lines.

The critic who works the hardest at his outside trade is a history professor. The professor is determined to rid the nation of educationists, college professors who know nothing about education, and replace them with educators who, like history professors, know practically all there is to be known about education. The good professor believes that public schools teach too many frill courses, such as consumer education. As every scholar knows, the nice, sincere young men and women on T.V. tell us all we need to know about our daily consumption. The professor, moreover, proves in one of his books that educationists spend too much time on methods by showing us in only three chapters how to teach the slow learner, the fast learner, and the average learner.

The temptation to mock our critics as they mock us is a great one. To say that the attacks by your lay critics are one sided, often unfair, frequently silly and frivolous, does not close the chapter. There are serious shortcomings within the ranks of professional education. The critics write not entirely about a fictitious world. Not all they say is fabrication. The world of Dewey, Thorndike, Bagley, Judd, Watson, and many others, men of unquestioned scholarship and leadership, no longer exists. There must be a good reason.

There are undoubtedly many factors that have contributed to the present state of professional education. Some of these factors we alone could not have controlled. Some we could have prevented. Many of the more serious problems in public-school education stem from ailments deep within the nation. There was a time in America when the impetus toward greater educational opportunities came from average citizens, from business, and from labor. It was not necessary in those days for professional educators to teach administrators how to sell education to the public as Madison Avenue sells soap. Teachers then did not have to ring doorbells in election campaigns to try to persuade voters to raise the tax rate or to provide necessary funds in bond campaigns.

Our lay critics all say that they favor increased public support of education. Cross their hearts and hope to die, they are in favor of spending more money for schools. All they are opposed to are bad teachers in bad schools who were trained in bad teachers colleges.

In one respect we deserve the scorn and derision of our lay critics. In the age of Bagley we dared to criticize one another

without being afraid of becoming that abominable critic called, the "purely destructive" critic. Instead of criticizing, we now strive for the consensus. We must all behave like gentlemen, who, although they find their hostess a bit silly, praise her flowerpots. We now leave all educational criticism to people outside professional education. These critics do not always fight by Marquis of Queensberry rules. We have been gentlemen so long that we do not know how to deal with such ruffians.

Educational criticism in a democratic society is both necessary and healthy, even when the critics blacken our wide, innocent eyes. The chances are that the rose-colored spectacles some of us have been wearing made our perception not only somewhat visionary but also a trifle myopic. If we had critics of Bagley's stature within our own ranks, the critics outside the profession would find little thunder to roll and their lightning would strike harmlessly.

We need men like Bagley. We probably will not find any half so skillful, but even an increase in the quantity of educational criticism will go a long way to make up for the lack of quality.



Teachers Organizations

Regardless of the proper strategy and tactics which should be employed by teachers organizations, it should be emphasized that the possibilities for continuous improvement in education and in teacher welfare depend upon a new deal in our teachers organizations. If we were to double the salaries of teachers overnight, it would only be a matter of time before the relative economic position of teachers declined substantially. If somehow we could get a sound and widely accepted program of teacher education, it would only be a matter of time before teacher education became chaotic and outmoded. Unless we can develop in education the

organizational strength to make changes as they are needed and to maintain teacher welfare at a professional level, we will be chasing rainbows in thinking that this or that improvement will be the answer to our educational problems. What the teachers need more than anything else is more power. They will not achieve more power until their organizations undergo basic changes in structure, membership, program, strategy, and leadership. The needed organizational surgery will be painful, but it will also be the most important step this generation can take.—MYRON LIEBERMAN in the *Educational Forum*.

SLAM BOOKS

By HERMAN E. LONDON

SLAM BOOKS start to bloom in the spring-time. They usually begin to appear right after the Easter vacation. The lower grade pupils usually purchase their hula hoops or Yo-yos at this time. There are probably three reasons for slam books' arising at this time of the school year. First of all, many of the pupils have become bored with happenings in their departmental classrooms. They are more than familiar with the routines of their teachers; they are saturated with the procedures. (New York City has a longer school year than any other system in the country.) The pupils have the bulk of the term's work under their belts and are looking forward to the home stretch. Many of them are just ripe for a good gag or stunt. The second reason why slam books appear at this time is the availability of old notebooks. Along about March many pupils discard their old, dog-eared, worn, torn notebooks and purchase new ones. The third likely reason for the flourishing of slam books in spring is the fact that by then the members of the class know one another

quite well. At promotion the pupils are shuffled on each grade level. Although it takes only a short time to learn the names of new classmates, it may take several months before they are known to one another well enough to comment on virtues and foibles. In any event, by the time we reach the vernal equinox the class structure has jelled sufficiently to provide a fertile matrix for "operation slam book."

Although of different format than formerly, the modern slam book is prepared in essentially the same way. Some girl student starts the trend. We have never uncovered a slam book circulated by a boy, although many of them participate in the projects once they are under way. The girl who initiates the project is most often a member of the popular clique in the class. It seems that she needs the help and support of her friends to make the first few stimulating and priming entries. An isolate could never attempt such a project, for two reasons: She would not have the cohorts to pull it off and she would have nothing to gain because no complimentary remarks would be coming her way.

Let me now give a detailed description of the current style in slam books. After the student has properly prepared the old hard-covered notebook by ripping out all previously written material, she sets up the category page. She does this by folding the first page in half vertically, thereby forming two columns. The page is then cut along the vertical or middle fold and the outside portion is discarded. The inner column remains bound in the notebook. Then the student neatly writes or prints a series of categories or classifications, one to a line, on this permanent half page. Typical classifications are "Best Dressed Boy," "Best Looking Boy," "Smartest Boy," "Boy I

EDITOR'S NOTE

Frankly, we had to read this article to find out what slam books are. From what the author says, they are apparently popular among junior-high-school students. He has been audio-visual consultant for a corporation located in New Milford, New Jersey, and previously was radar electronics instructor in the Signal Corps, Fort Monmouth, New Jersey; teacher of elementary and junior-high-school classes, P.S. 81, Riverdale, New York; instructor of audio-visual techniques and supervisor of the A-V laboratory, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Like Best," "Boy Most Likely to Succeed," and so forth. Usually these categories are written in couplets and include, for example, "Best Dressed Boy" and "Best Dressed Girl" on two successive lines. Often, but not always, the last line is reserved for "My Name Is . . ."

The first student wishing to inscribe her entries in the slam book does so by writing the names of classmates on the exposed, right-hand, outside portion of the appropriate line on the first blank page. After she completes her entries she folds her page in half vertically and tucks it under the original master listing, thereby exposing the next blank page. Each student proceeds in the same manner.

At the back of one slam book this investigator found two pages reserved. The next to the last was entitled "Average," which, examination revealed, was the owner's tabulation of the consensus of opinion, although the girl probably was not familiar with that terminology. The final page contained the slam-book owner's selections and entries. There was a high degree of correlation between the owner's selections and the consensus entries. The owner had left a few items blank and in flipping through the pages one could note that there was no majority vote on certain categories and she didn't wish to make her final decision on the basis of incomplete returns.

Two miscellaneous comments about the modern slam book should be made. Nowadays most of the categories listed are positive in approach. You almost never find a derogatory classification. For this reason many of the students do not even understand the history of the term "slam" book. It should also be noted that teachers do not look kindly on this grass roots popularity poll. First of all they find that the passing around of the book is a disturbing element in the classroom. Secondly, most teachers, recalling the rough-and-ready days of slam-bookism, feel that the operation results in nothing but hurt feelings for many members

of the group. The standard procedure therefore is to confiscate and destroy all slam books discovered. This investigator had also followed this approach. A more enlightened viewpoint might contend that these items might be valuable keys to the group dynamics of the class.

Only three specific instances can be recalled where slam books did not flourish. In the first, an eighth-grade class decided to "publish" a yearbook on the style of those issued by high-school and college graduating classes, but greatly simplified of course. Each of the class members had his picture taken and it was printed along with his name in alphabetical order and with a comment. Most of the comments were innocuous and followed the pattern of "Short and Sweet" for girls or "Junior Scientist" for boys. The listings were prepared by a "committee" and approved by the home-room teacher.

Another time there was no necessity for slam books to bloom was the term the student council decided to have a popularity contest. The faculty adviser, who was also the health education teacher, "guided" the running of the poll. When the smoke cleared away, token awards were presented to the pupils voted "Best Groomed Boy," "Neatest Girl," and so forth. The energies normally devoted to slam books were diverted into constructive channels.

The last time the open season on slam books was suspended, the same health education teacher conducted sociometric tests within his home room. Each pupil was given three small pieces of paper on which he wrote his name. These slips were shuffled in a hat and redistributed among the members of the class. For two weeks pupils observed their classmates and rated them on such personality traits as consideration for others, attention to duties, health practices, and so on. When the three anonymous ratings were returned, the individual pupils saw that the chance for prejudice had been minimized.

➤ *Events & Opinion* ➤

A PROGRAM FOR THE GIFTED: The identification, classification, and instruction of the gifted student have been explored to a considerable extent during the past few years. Numerous studies have resulted in the establishment of criteria for the identification of the gifted student, while other investigations have concerned themselves with various approaches to the problem of placing these students in the classroom situation. However, determining the needs of the superior student and developing a suitable educational program represent a far greater challenge to the educators than the procedure of formulating entrance requirements for admission into the fraternity of the gifted.

We are familiar with the enrichment programs, the accelerated and nongraded techniques, and other methods of providing substantial offerings for the gifted student. We should like to describe here a program recently introduced by Fairleigh Dickinson University which offers college-level courses for superior students.

The decision to offer such a program grew out of conferences held by officials of Fairleigh Dickinson University and high-school principals of schools located in the northern part of New Jersey. It was emphasized that investigation of the Advanced Studies Program in New Jersey revealed that few high schools were taking advantage of the opportunity to offer special assistance programs for the gifted students. The high-school principals indicated that there were two main reasons for this apparent lag: the expense involved and the administrative time consumed in setting up the project. Other contributing factors have been the lack of qualified teachers and the difficulty of scheduling classes within the crowded school week. While it is felt that some schools may overcome these problems,

the increased enrollments faced by many schools may cause the staffs to find less and less time for anything but the necessity of developing the general school programs.

Thus, Fairleigh Dickinson University, encouraged by the enthusiasm of the high-school principals, embarked last fall upon a project which offers college-level courses for college credit for gifted high-school students. The reasons underlying this program are: (1) to enrich offerings to above-average high-school students, and (2) to give such students an opportunity to present to the college they will attend advanced placement credits which will enable them either to spend the time in college for extra electives or to accelerate their studies and thereby achieve earlier graduation from college.

The students are selected by co-operative action of the high-school principals and guidance counselors and the admissions office of Fairleigh Dickinson University and are required to possess qualifications which include: (1) a consistently high record of scholastic achievement, (2) motivation, (3) a level of maturity that will enable the student to put forth a persistent effort, (4) a desire to work hard, (5) good health and emotional stability, and (6) approval of parent or guardian and high-school principal or guidance director. To assist qualified students in meeting the tuition costs, scholarships are available from the university and from some of the local boards of education. Students able to bear the full tuition expenses pay the regular fees.

Thus, many high-school seniors, juniors, and a few sophomores, representing twenty-two different high schools of the north New Jersey area, are enrolled in various courses which include chemistry, literature, biology, and elementary Russian. Classes meet on Saturday at the Rutherford (New Jersey)

campus and are taught by members of the faculty of the university.

A preliminary evaluation of the program has indicated a high degree of satisfaction and accomplishment and considerable enthusiasm on the part of the students and instructors. The caliber of work which these high-school students produce is reported to be equal to and sometimes superior to the standard set for the university students taking similar courses. Naturally, the high-school students assume these extra studies in addition to those normally taken at their high schools without its affecting their grades or interfering with their daily assignments. This situation concurs with evidence produced in other studies that a gifted student possesses a capacity to undertake a greater work load than the average student. However, it is not a matter of adding more work for work's sake; the extra assignments must have a purpose and must be challenging and absorbing for the student.

This project at Fairleigh Dickinson University is a continuing plan. Additional courses will be inaugurated and expanded facilities will be provided to meet the demands of the high-school students interested in and qualified to participate in this program. Therefore, studies of several aspects of this project will be undertaken. Teaching methods as well as student outcomes will be examined. Workshops held throughout the academic year should prove helpful to the co-operating faculty and to others who wish to become familiar with this enriching program.

It is within the realm of possibility, according to the admissions directors of several of our important universities, that within five years most of our superior students will be entering college as sophomores. In our democratic society such a plan offers a challenge to the gifted student, without, at the same time, raising college admissions standards so high that the average student is barred. The plan at Fairleigh Dickinson represents a step in the right direction.

There is every reason to believe that other colleges and universities can develop similar programs. Several other institutions of higher learning have organized projects which concern the gifted high-school student, but more schools should think seriously of developing such programs according to the needs of their communities. It requires, first of all, the realization that the college campus is an excellent place at which students from neighboring high schools may gather for advanced courses. The college campus has appeal to the teenager, who is impressed by the grown-up atmosphere of the classrooms and laboratories.

It requires close co-ordination and close co-operation with the high-school principals and guidance directors who, when given the opportunity, would be more than willing to discuss the formulation of college-level courses for their capable students. A program of this type has enormous possibilities, and it may offer a partial solution to the problem of meeting the needs of our gifted high-school students.

THE IGNORAMOMETER: This was Edison's own version of the I.Q. test, designed at a time when he was inveighing against the quality of American education. The "ignoramometer" was a memory test and included such questions as "Who invented logarithms" and "Where is Korea?"—along with playful items such as "If you were desirous of obtaining an order from a manufacturer with a jealous wife, and you saw him with a chorus girl, what would you do?"

Using this device to test prospective employees, Edison announced that out of 718 college-educated men, only about 10 per cent managed a passing grade.

With due respect to the memory of the Wizard of Menlo Park, we are happy this gimmick did not reach the lofty heights occupied by his more useful inventions.

JOSEPH GREEN

Better School-College Relations

By PAUL J. NEWMAN

HISTORICALLY, THE BASIC FOUNDATION of college control over secondary schools can be traced to the unanticipated effect of the standard Carnegie unit. Developed primarily as a means of identifying colleges that might participate in a retirement plan for their professors, it arbitrarily required that member colleges demand of incoming freshmen four years of high-school work amounting to at least fourteen Carnegie units, and that only specific college preparatory subjects be recognized. The subsequent action of the colleges resulted in what amounts to one of the most influential controls exercised by them over the secondary schools. Evidence of this control is still apparent in high-school curriculums where its effect, many times good, should nevertheless be limited to a specific area in the offerings of a truly comprehensive high school.

Geographically and numerically the northeastern section of the United States feels the college pressure most intensely.

Not only are a great number of potential students centered here, but also the traditionally coveted colleges whose influence attracts great numbers of candidates from all other sections of the country. Outgrowths of the sectional attraction include the vast exodus of young easterners to colleges in the South and West, as well as reduced educational opportunities for well-qualified high-school graduates who do not choose to leave the area or cannot afford to.

This severe competition places upon principals and guidance personnel, especially in the more classical secondary schools in well-to-do suburban areas, the additional burden imposed by parents and administrators to cultivate friendly relations with college admissions personnel directed toward possible future favors. As valid and aboveboard as these relations may be, they certainly do not intimate equality of opportunity for all candidates. Subjectivity in candidate selection is an inherent right bestowed upon the higher institutions; yet to favor one secondary school over another, as a result of the right "contacts," renders to the innocent victims a grave injustice.

Benjamin Brickman in a recent article describes the high-school senior today as "a bundle of nerves in a rat race."* While nervously awaiting replies from five or six colleges after taking in stride the College Boards (both junior and senior—aptitude and achievement), the new preliminary S.A.T., the National Merit Scholarship exam as well as various governmental, semi-public, and privately sponsored special examinations, the senior's real intellectual accomplishment in his final year may well be written off as nonexistent. If experience

* Benjamin Brickman, "The College vs. the High School Senior," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XLII (March, 1958), 131.

EDITOR'S NOTE

There was a time when colleges and universities were short on entering students. They needed them to fill in their ranks. In 1909, Yale University admitted about 50 per cent of its freshman class on condition, which means that only half of the entering class fully met all admission requirements.

How different today! Well-qualified applicants to college frequently are unable to secure admission to the colleges of their first or second choice. In this kind of situation, there is great need for clarification of school-college relationships. That's what this article is about: the senior dilemma and the freshman purge. The author is guidance director of the New Milford (Connecticut) public schools.

gained by pressure testing has merit, certainly too much of it can defeat its own purpose. The true scholar who could readily meet a genuine intellectual challenge becomes hopelessly involved in anticipation of, and frantic preparation for, one test after another. One can seriously reflect whether the aptitudes that these tests supposedly measure could not be put to better use within a subject-centered classroom devoted to intellectual accomplishment.

To ease this situation Brickman suggests only one series of College Boards—possibly merged with the Merit Scholarship tests—since both measure basically the same aptitudes. He feels that the colleges should agree upon a single date of student notification, with a deadline for student acceptances, and a second uniform date for notification of those on a preferred waiting list, who would fill out the individual college's available space.

To anyone who tries to list possible ways for improving school-college relations, it is evident that both parties need to modify present-day procedures, provide certain concessions to each other, and accept new responsibilities individually and co-operatively. Some of the following suggestions for positive action are already practiced by many, others are proposed.

High-School Responsibilities

(1) Make college awareness an integral school responsibility as early as the seventh grade. Group guidance and individual counseling must be increased and improved.

(2) Encourage college representatives to visit the high schools. Recent high-school graduates now at college make excellent good-will ambassadors for their respective colleges.

(3) Resist parental and student pressure directed toward selection of colleges definitely unsuitable for the individual.

(4) Accept the colleges' right to self-

termination and subjective leeway in student selection.

(5) Be selective in approving only a part of the myriad standardized tests facing upperclassmen.

(6) Resist the popular notion that a high percentage of college placements is a valid measure of superior standards. How many of these placements are eventually graduated?

(7) Develop for the college bound a curriculum of real intellectual scope and depth, preferably an articulated unit beginning in the seventh grade.

(8) Realize that ability grouping has merit. College students are in themselves an entity on the ability scale, so how can college aspirants be anything else?

College Responsibilities

(1) Accept the vast scope of the comprehensive high school as something more than just a college preparatory institution.

(2) Recognize that no admission policy is flawless, and that continued work toward more nearly uniform policies is desirous.

(3) Create closer relations with the high schools in clarifying college policies, requirements, and objectives.

(4) Improve articulation between institutions by better communications, visitations, curriculum developments.

(5) Create, in conjunction with the high schools, a minimum secondary-school achievement level, acceptable for admission to the respective colleges and closely correlated with the students' eventual college performance in determining the continuance of such a program between the participating institutions. The secondary schools would cherish this right and tend to guard it rigidly, since errors in selection would mean consequent loss of the privilege.

(6) Develop improved guidance and counseling services for the proper placement of incoming freshmen. The high-school cumulative records could be utilized here.

While, on the surface, some of these suggestions might seem contradictory and others might be already in use, the immediate objective is one of obtaining a better balance in the over-all relationships. Where some schools and colleges already accept one another's joint responsibilities and con-

tributions, definite improvement is desirous in many others.

The problem is one that will be with us for a long time to come. The mass influx of tomorrow's college-bound generation prescribes that new and bold measures be taken now.

Education: America's Last Chance

By WILLIAM G. KEANE

Huntington Station, New York

Recent reports of school budgets that have been rejected in various sections of the country indicate that American complacency has finally accommodated itself to the threat of Sputnik. Certainly, in suburban residential areas the problem is complicated by the lack of a broad tax base, which makes necessary an ever spiraling property tax to meet the rising costs of education.

The world we live in is obviously a precarious one and altruistic reasons we might have for improving our educational system pale into insignificance when we realize that our way of life faces a grave threat to its continued existence. For years, perhaps for generations to come, it will be in the national interest for us to maintain the best possible educational system we can possibly organize and this is going to cost money, especially if we are going to get the people into the teaching profession who will get the job done in the way it must be done.

Figures recently published by responsible agencies seem to indicate that we are making progress in overcoming the teacher shortage. Although improvement has been quantitative, there is little evidence to prove that the gain has been qualitative. We would be rightfully suspicious of our nation's medical situation, I think, if we found it necessary to recruit doctors from women who had left college or medical school twenty or more years ago. Obviously, many dedicated teachers are enlisted from women who gave up the profession in years past for the responsibilities of family life, but such teachers will have to be replaced much faster than the young men

and women who enter the field as their life's profession. This is an emergency measure and not a long-range solution. What hope, then, does the future hold?

The prospects are still alarming. Tomorrow's teachers are today's students and their attitudes give us a good idea of where we stand. The spring, 1959, edition of the *Columbia University Forum* reported a survey of student opinion that was made at a recent meeting of high-school newspaper editors from the country at large, held at the university. Asked to give their preferences and opinions of the different professions, the greatest number considered teaching "to afford the lowest prestige and income. . . ." These high-school editors are unquestionably drawn from the top ranks of their classes and their views ought to make us consider soberly the future of education in America.

The responses of these students also re-emphasize that money alone will not get the proper people into the teaching field. We must find ways of enhancing the status of the educator in the eyes of the public. A large part of this responsibility lies with teachers themselves, but other agencies can help. For example, states can provide teachers with license plates of specific designation, somewhat like medical doctors now have, not, of course, as a protection for uninhibited traffic violations but as a sign of their unique and respected place in society.

There is no single solution to our problems, but the time left for us to find the necessary answer is rapidly running out.

Evaluating Classroom Instruction

By SALIBELLE ROYSTER

IN THE LAST DECADE much has been written and said in regard to evaluation of teacher performance in the classroom, although salaries, somewhat higher than before, have failed to keep pace with mounting enrollments and responsibilities. As head of the English department of a city high school of 1,500, I have done considerable observing of the work of others and much checking on my own. I therefore have the following suggestions to offer.

Command of the classroom situation from the beginning will save worlds of grief later on. This includes acceptance by the pupils of the teacher as a leader and as an authority on his subject. Learning names of pupils promptly is a definite necessity. A teacher who points and says "you" after the first week or so is substandard. Seating charts can be a great help with the chore of memorizing names.

Making the subject interesting and comprehensible from the beginning is another factor. This involves a freshness of presentation, with pupil participation from the first. General information and experience, added to a background of study, reading, and travel, can do much. A good command of the English language, including habitual

correctness of speech, is essential. Pupils who make careless errors themselves will spot them like lightning in a teacher.

Organization of material is the next step, including lesson planning, methods of presentation, teacher and pupil preparation of adequate assignments, and effective use of audio-visual aids and other outside materials. For example, a class in English or American literature may be enriched by bulletin-board and chalk-ledge displays of pictures of authors, the places about which they wrote, and the country in which they lived. Slides and filmstrips on punctuation and usage may be shown to grammar and composition classes. Pupil work always draws attention.

Promptness in beginning and conducting a class is vital. The teacher who is late or who lets the first five or ten minutes slip by without constructive activity has lost ground. Not always need the recitation itself begin immediately. Review, vocabulary study, summarizing of the day's assignment, or simply reading ahead may occupy pupils while the teacher takes the attendance and the class gets under way.

While requiring promptness in pupils, the teacher will do well to check his own punctuality in returning papers, notebooks, and reports. Sharp eyes detect laxity here. It is well not to take more papers than one can grade. Some checking can be done in class. Paragraph writing and longer compositions, however, deserve the teacher's critical attention and should be returned with corrections for revision and rewriting.

Wise distribution of questions in formal recitation, calling pupils by name, is old-fashioned but basic. No wallflower should be left unnoticed and no chatterbox allowed to monopolize the class situation. Pupil reaction to teacher and assignments

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is a short piece on an engrossing topic. If it were music, we might call it "Theme and Variations," except that there are pragmatic overtones. In terms of classroom control toward effective learning, experience is a good teacher. The author writes of her experience out of which come observations and advice. This is both good and desirable. She is head of the English department, Reitz High School, Evansville, Indiana.

should show a real interest in the subject and a desire to learn more about it. Teacher motivation is the keynote here.

Neatness in physical appearance of both teacher and room is immediately noticeable. Teachers need not be fashion plates, but they can always be well groomed. The room can be kept tidy, even though used every period, by a little straightening of chairs and tables, by erasing the chalk board, and by having paper cleared from the floor. Pupils work better in a well-kept room.

A pleasing though positive classroom manner, fairness, sincerity, and resourcefulness are all priceless qualities in a teacher. Still deeper go the intangibles: rapport, good feeling, sense of humor and proportion, sympathy, depth of knowledge and character, and genuine understanding of and interest in young people. All these qualities are hard to include in any teacher rating, but they often make the difference between a mediocre instructor and a superior one.



Profile of an Educational Paradox

By SISTER THERESE MARGARET ROBERTS, O.P.
Santurce, Puerto Rico

No one questions the importance of repetition in the development of the motor skills. The only way to learn to run is to practice running. When it is a question of mental skills, this theory is not so universally accepted. But the law is just as valid in the world of mind as it is in the world of body. The only way to learn to *think* is to practice *thinking*.

Frequently teachers are at an extreme: they either teach over the child's head or under his feet.

That human beings differ definitely one from another is the basis for the code detection used in filing criminals' fingerprints. No two prints are ever alike.

If this is true of the physical features of man's body, how much more should we expect it to be true of the psychological aspects of the mind; i.e., the ability to learn.

Individual differences range from the gifted to the moronic, from the perfect body structure to the hopelessly handicapped. The child with any one of these types of differences needs to be accepted, taught, and encouraged. Today, the testing, grouping, selecting, enriching are all attempts to meet individual differences. This problem demands more than just *attempts*. Will Durant, writing in the *Saturday Evening Post* for April 11, 1936, set certain goals of education: "First, the control of life. . . . Second, the enjoyment of life. . . . Third, the understanding of life."

Every child is an *individual* and every child is different. Just how is our educational program conditioned by individual differences? If the principles of learning are applied in teaching, there is every prospect that the outcomes of learning will be realized.

The tool, the body, should be conditioned to learning. The tensions, anxieties, and fears must be replaced with the atmosphere of freedom, happiness, and security. It may be helpful to remember that the individual is affected by many stimuli, some interior and some exterior. In the processes of growth and development, new powers, new capacities, and new differentiations are realized. No two people have identical perceptions of any situation. Therefore, no two people ever have the same reaction in a situation. It is in this sense that we refer to the uniqueness of every human being.

There is little disagreement today in the belief that the major function of education is to instill, enrich, and guide the growth and development of each child to his utmost capacity. Teachers are encouraged to provide learning and democratic attitudes, habits, and ideals. If teachers are denied the opportunity to participate and to share in making formats which have significance in their work, how can they be encouraged to practice democracy in the classroom?

Through homogeneous grouping we have the best means of meeting individual differences.

98 Curriculum Definitions

By BENJAMIN J. NOVAK

1. *Ability*: The power to respond and to produce in certain situations. It is developed with training and experience, and is broader in scope than a skill.—(See also *Aptitude*.)

2. *Action Research*: Research by a school's faculty, usually to evaluate and objectify curriculum practices in their own setting. Evidence is gathered systematically, and hypotheses are tested, but the results may not meet all the standards of classical research, and generalizations beyond the particular situation are limited.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.)

3. *Activities (also Extracurricular Activities and Cocurriculum)*: The less formally organized portions of the curriculum, during or after school hours, usually not carrying academic credit. More attention is generally directed to student leadership, interests, and guidance than in the classroom.

4. *Activity-Centered Unit*: A unit having a minimum of teacher-directed recitation, but featuring pupil activities of oral, written, and group nature. It may include

major activities (many students involved for a long time in activities like dramatizations, excursions, and hobby shows), or minor activities (a few pupils involved for a short time in projects, reports, and the like).—(After William T. Gruhn.) (See also *Unit*; *Life Problem Unit*.)

5. *Activity Curriculum*: Emphasizes a direct, first-hand participation approach which assumes that learning experiences are meaningful in direct proportion to the extent that children plan co-operatively with the teacher and learn by doing.—(See also *Curriculum*; *Experience Curriculum*.)

6. *Aims (same as Objectives, Purposes)*: The thinking ahead on what teachers and other educational planners wish to accomplish with themselves and their students.

7. *Appreciation*: A feeling, awareness, or judgment concerning the value or significance of an event, experience, or object. It has an emotional connotation.

8. *Aptitude*: An innate potentiality for success in an area of performance or learning, existing prior to direct acquaintance with the area.

9. *Attitude*: A mind-set or readiness to react to given situations in certain ways.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.)

10. *Autocratic (Authoritarian) Leadership*: Leader determines group policy, assigns work, outlines procedures to be followed, demonstrates tasks to be done, and generally dominates the group.—(See also *Democratic Leadership*; *Laissez-Faire Leadership*.)

11. *Broad Field Organization of Subjects*: The combining or fusing of formerly separated subjects into larger wholes, in order to develop a unified view of a comprehensive field. Biology, for example, combines botany and zoology. General science combines biology, chemistry, geology, me-

EDITOR'S NOTE

As there are terms in education that convey different meanings to many of us, we applaud this comprehensive list of major definitions for two reasons: (1) the fact that interpretations of educational terms change as notions of education change; and (2) the fact that a good list can avoid confusion and uncertainty. Unlike a dictionary, these definitions are not something to refer to but to read through at one sitting. The author is vice-principal, Frankford High School, Philadelphia, lecturer in secondary education at Rutgers and Temple universities, and lecturer in vocational guidance at the University of Pennsylvania.

teorology, and physics. Language arts include reading, writing, and speaking. Social studies combine history, geography, sociology, and economics.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Survey Courses.)

12. *"Buzz" Group*: A temporary subdivision, usually from four to ten persons, of a larger group, to permit fuller interaction on a common problem. There are usually a chairman and recorder, and a report is made to the full group.

13. *Carnegie Unit*: A standard used to measure scholastic credit in secondary education for transfer, graduation, and college entrance. One unit is given for a course having five periods of prepared classwork weekly for the academic year. (It was developed early in the century by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.)

14. *Case Method of Teaching*: The work (approach and major conclusions) and personal characteristics of noted scientists or other important persons are studied from their original writings.

15. *Clinic (in Education)*: A meeting of teachers or other professional persons to share experience on common practical problems and to gain information or skills on new and improved practices from experts. Sessions usually are extended over most or all of a day for one or several days. Usually there are no examinations nor do those who attend receive credit.—(See also Institute; Workshop.)

16. *Committee*: A small subdivision of a larger group that does its work outside the regular group meetings. It is delegated to carry out a specific piece of work within a given time.—(After Ruth Strang.)

17. *Common Learnings (or General Education)*: Kinds of behavior and understandings that all persons, despite their differences, need to learn in order to live effectively in a democratic society. Some of these include reading, writing, speaking, computing, citizenship skills, physical fitness, and appreciations, among others.—(After

Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Core Curriculum.)

18. *Concept*: A generalization growing out of recognition of a common element in a number of facts and experiences. It attaches meaning to learning. A concept that is simple to a child can amplify and develop with added insight and experience.

19. *Concomitant Learning*: Knowledge or skill which is not specifically aimed at, but which accompanies the learning which is sought.—(After Harold W. Bernard.)

20. *Consumable Materials*: Objects like newspapers, magazines, circulars, and the like, having timely but temporary value in enriching teaching. Their usefulness generally does not exceed two or three years.

21. *Contract Method (Dalton Plan)*: Each pupil in the class works individually on mainly written materials or "contracts," assigned in advance. Different contracts, varying qualitatively or quantitatively, may be prepared on two or more ability levels.—(See also Flexible Assignment.)

22. *Control Group*: In an experimental situation, the group with which the experimental group is compared. All factors are held constant in the control group, while in the experimental group one factor is intentionally varied.—(After Harold W. Bernard.)

23. *Controlled Experiment*: An experiment with control and experimental groups, so designed that only one variable will be operating at a time.—(See also Control Group.)

24. *Co-operative Education*: An educational program providing for both study in school and employment in industry or business during schooltime. There is school supervision, and usually salary and school credit are provided.—(Also is called School-Work Education or Work Experience.)

25. *Core Curriculum*: (a) (Most common definition): On the secondary school level, especially junior high school, a block of time, usually two or three class periods, devoted to a problem-solving approach of so-

cial and personal problems significant to youth, rather than to a single subject or even combined subjects. The content may come from any department, depending on the problem. Guidance is an important part of the teacher's responsibility, including activities often found in the home room.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.)

(b) (secondary use): Same as Common Learnings or General Education.

26. *Correlation of Subjects*: Planning the sequence of content in two subjects so that what is taught in one is used or related in some way to that of another. For example, ratio and proportion may be taught in mathematics at the same time it is used in the shop. Bacteria may be studied in biology when diseases are being learned about in the health class. History is often correlated with literature.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Fusion: Integration.)

27. *Course*: (a) A block of subject content in a specialized area of learning, usually divided into topical or time units, covering a semester or year. There may be courses in English, chemistry, art, and so on.

(b) It is often used loosely in high schools and colleges as meaning the grouping of subjects into various combinations around some future educational or vocational objective.—(See also Curriculum [b]; Program of Studies.)

28. *Course of Study*: Part of the curriculum offered in one department, organized for classroom use, incorporating objectives, learning experiences, content, materials, and means of evaluation.—(See also Curriculum Guide.)

29. *Cultural Organization of Curriculum*: Curriculum based on understanding of world culture, including the past and present forces controlling the world. Included are the art, music, politics, mores, economics, and history of peoples.—(See also Problem Solving; Topical Organization of Curriculum.)

30. *Culture*: The fabric of values, beliefs,

customs, skills, aesthetic objects, methods of thinking, and institutions into which persons of a society are born. One's occupation is a specialized aspect of the cultural pattern.—(After B. O. Smith, W. O. Stanley, and J. H. Shores.)

31. *Curriculum*: (a) The whole of the interacting forces of the total environment provided for the pupils by the school, and the pupils' experiences in that environment.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.)

(b) In high school and college it often refers to the grouping of subjects into various combinations around some future educational or vocational objective. Examples are academic curriculum, engineering curriculum, and so on.—(See also Course [b]; Program of Studies.)

32. *Curriculum Guide*: A flexible and broad suggestive guide to aid the teacher in his teaching throughout the year, without inhibiting him in planning with pupils or adapting the program to their needs. It is less rigid and prescriptive than a course of study. It includes suggestions on determining student needs, planning with students in setting up objectives, and so on.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Course of Study.)

33. *Cycle of Teaching*: The repetition of the same concept or learning area at different grade levels, varying the content and approach with the maturity and background of the learners.

34. *Deductive Learning*: Learning based on deductive logic. It applies general laws, either discovered by induction or assumed, to the explanation of specific events. It often is applied in the syllogism, consisting of the major premise, minor premise, and conclusion.

Inductive Learning is based on inductive logic. Many specific events are studied to arrive at a general law.

35. *Democratic Leadership*: Leader encourages the group to select its own working partners, discuss its policies, and reach its own decisions. The democratic leader

supplies information and alternatives, and is objective in praise and criticism.—(See also Autocratic Leadership; Laissez-Faire Leadership.)

36. *Developmental Tasks of Youth*: A list of nine individual needs and societal demands that adolescents must master in order to lead satisfying lives. The list was developed by Robert J. Havighurst.—(See also Ten Imperative Educational Needs of Youth.)

37. *Eight-Year Study of Secondary Education*: An extensive study made in 1933-41 with many co-operating high schools and colleges, showing that graduates of high schools having radically different curriculums did about as well scholastically in college as students prepared by regular college preparatory courses.

38. *Emergent Curriculum Organization*: A type of organization developed through the process of teacher-pupil planning.

39. *Experience-Centered Curriculum*: Attention is on the type and quality of pupil experience leading to socially desirable behavior. Subject matter is a means to an end, is selected *after* the specific goals have been visualized. Attitudes and emotional development are considered just as important as, if not more important than, skills and academic learnings.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Activity Curriculum, Experience Curriculum, Subject-Centered Curriculum.)

40. *Experience Curriculum*: A general term for curriculum organization which is flexibly planned, so that the experiences of children serve their needs and purposes in ways consistent with principles of human development. It presumably relates to the whole life of the child, not only the happenings within the school.—(See also Experience-Centered Curriculum.)

41. *Experience Unit*: A unit consisting of activities emphasizing the needs and purposes of the learner. Attitudes and emotional development assume importance equal to tangible learnings, and the out-

comes are considered by the student as worthy of achievement.—(See also Activity-Centered Unit, Unit.)

42. *Flexible Assignment*: Instructional requirements set a minimum that must be completed by the slowest pupils of the group. Additional requirements of various sorts on several levels provide for more capable students. In the contract system, different assignments are prepared for the different levels.—(See also Contract Method.)

43. *Forum*: A lecture, or several formal presentations, before an audience, with time for questions.—(See also Panel; Symposium.)

44. *Functional Curriculum*: A curriculum aimed at usefulness in meeting life adjustment problems, in contrast to subject curriculum.—(See also Subject-Centered Curriculum.)

45. *Fusion*: Disregards subject matter lines, by selection of content of two or more subject matter areas in any amount or arrangement needed to develop a functional or life unit.—(See also Integration, Subject, Unified Courses.)

46. *Gifted Child*: One in the top 1 or 2 per cent of the population in intelligence (I.Q. usually of 135 or over). His behavior is characterized by a general superiority in speed and breadth of learning, originality, initiative, and imagination, or the superiority may be only in specific areas such as art, music, or literature, among others.

47. *Home Project*: Working out a problem at home culminating in a finished product, usually by an individual student, under teacher supervision. It is required in federally supported programs in vocational home economics and vocational agriculture.—(See also Project.)

48. *Homogeneous Grouping*: The attempt to classify students on the same grade level in groups that are less mixed than are unselected, or heterogeneous groups. Measures often used to separate students are intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests, marks, vocational interests, teacher judg-

ment, or combinations of these. There may be rapid groups, average groups, slow groups, or other groups.

49. *Individual Teaching*: The learning of each student is directed individually, and he progresses at his own pace. Shop projects and written contracts are largely individual in nature.—(See also Contract Method.)

50. *Individualized Instruction*: Teaching of groups or classes in which provision is made in instruction and assignments to allow for differences in students.

51. *Institute*: A gathering of teachers or other experienced educators, extending over most or all of the day for several days or for as long as two weeks. Included are lectures by experts and some sharing of common problems. Examinations and credit may or may not be included.—(See also Clinic; Workshop.)

52. *Integration (in Curriculum)*: A general term, used loosely in a variety of situations. It refers to a drawing together in meaningful association of the various segments of the curriculum, cutting across and often largely erasing subject lines. New content groupings are established on the basis of subject areas or problems.—(See also Fusion; Subject.)

53. *Job Analysis*: An intensive, detailed direct method of obtaining the pertinent facts about a job or working situation. It includes observation of the job and reporting of facts that are observed, or secured in conversation with workers, supervisors, and others who have significant information.—(After Carroll L. Shartle.)

54. *Laissez-Faire Leadership*: The leader gives no guidance to the group in making decisions. He gives information when asked, but otherwise does nothing, and makes no comment.—(See also Autocratic Leadership; Democratic Leadership.)

55. *Language Arts*: A broad field organization of teaching in which the reading, writing, speaking, and listening phases of English expression are combined. This is

found in the elementary grades.—(See also Broad Field Organization of Subjects.)

56. *Life Problem Unit (Problem Unit)*: The emphasis and nature of the learning are based upon the learner and his needs. It has the characteristics of the experience-centered curriculum, and may be found on all levels from kindergarten through college.—(See also Experience-Centered Curriculum.)

57. *Logical Approach*: The arrangement of subject matter in a systematic way after it has been analyzed for similarities and dissimilarities by adults. This is the basis of departmental organization, and for reference and cataloguing purposes.—(See also Psychological Approach.)

58. *Morrison Plan* (by Henry C. Morrison of University of Chicago): Formal subject-matter learning arranged in logical units around some central concept. The units are intended for all students, with the more capable completing a greater number. There are five steps: exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation.

59. *Panel*: Informal, spontaneous discussion and exchange of information and ideas by a group of participants under a chairman, in front of an audience. There are no prepared speeches. This is followed by a forum period in which the audience participates.—(See also Forum; Symposium.)

60. *Parallel Track Curriculum*: The abler students, depending upon their speed, ability, and industriousness, finish a prescribed course in a shorter time than slower students.—(See also Three-Track Curriculum.)

61. *Problem Solving*: An approach to learning, based on recognizing, analyzing, and resolving situations realistic to the experience of the learner. The approach may include: (1) Sense and define the problem. (2) Obtain data by experimentation and observation. (3) Organize and evaluate data. (4) Propose an explanation or hypothesis. (5) Test hypothesis by further investiga-

tion. (6) Draw up principles or conclusions. (7) Apply principles to specific cases.—(See also Life Problem Unit; Topical Organization of Curriculum.)

62. *Program of Studies*: A list of courses offered in a school, and the grouping of required and elective courses for attaining some educational objective.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Course; Curriculum.)

63. *Project*: Working out of a problem by an entire class or a smaller group of students. The project may include subproblems and a variety of activities. Generally there is some physical outcome, like a report, product, or display.—(After John S. Richardson.) (See also Home Project.)

64. *Prosser Resolution* (1945): A brief statement, declaring that vocational schools can prepare 20 per cent of high-school youth for skilled occupations and the high schools can prepare 20 per cent for college, and requesting the United States Office of Education to call a joint conference on "education for the 60 percent."

65. *Psychological Approach*: Arrangement of subject matter in a functional, or experience manner, growing out of recognized problems or situations in the learner's environment.—(See also Logical Approach.)

66. *Recitation*: Teachers ask questions, usually on a set of questions or other materials that the students have been asked to master. One pupil responds, while the others listen and await their turn.—(See also Socialized Recitation.)

67. *Resource Person*: A specialist possessing unusual knowledge or skill, brought in to school or visited outside, for one or a few meetings with students or faculty.

68. *Resource Unit*: A learning problem or portion of a subject area containing detailed content, references, audio-visual aids, activities, and other material from which the teacher can select in planning his teaching. The unit is not intended to be taught as such, and may be drawn from by many

teachers in planning different teaching units.—(See also Teaching Unit.)

69. *Retarded Person*: A newer classification, now largely replacing such a term as "feeble-minded." It designates a person having inferior intelligence, with an I.Q. below 70. There are three groups of retarded persons: retarded or educable (moron), I.Q. 50-70; moderately retarded or trainable (imbecile), I.Q. 30-50; severely retarded (idiot), I.Q. below 30.—(See also Slow Learner.)

70. *Role Playing*: A form of spontaneous dramatization in which an individual acts out a role in a social situation.—(See also Sociodrama.)

71. *Seminar*: A small discussion group treating research, formed for mutual help. It usually consists of experts or faculty and advanced students in a relationship of greater equality of status than in the usual class.—(After Ruth Strang.)

72. *Slow Learner*: A student who is not regarded as being mentally retarded, but who cannot cope with the regular curriculum unless it is adjusted radically. The retardation may not be in all activities. The I.Q. is generally between 70 and 90.—(See also Retarded Person.)

73. *Social Functions Core*: A core curriculum approach based on cultural patterns like speech, religious practices, family and social systems, government, property, and earning a living. The activities are believed to be universal.—(See also Social Problems Core.)

74. *Social Problems Core*: A derivation of a core curriculum pattern. Problems are drawn from important social issues, existing at the local, national, and world levels. The issues are not necessarily universal in scope.—(See also Social Functions Core.)

75. *Socialized Recitation*: A discussion emphasizing group thinking. The teacher may be the leader, or the group may elect its chairman. The aim is to encourage socialization, group thinking, and creative expression.

76. *Sociodrama*: Use of spontaneous role playing to enact situations that are of common concern to a group. It helps to stimulate discussion and give the participants insight (including attitudes and emotions) about persons in an opposing situation.—(See also Role Playing.)

77. *Sociogram*: A diagram made by the teacher showing relationships between the members of a group, based upon stated preferences for companions. It is useful in seating, in committee choices, in assigning responsibilities, and for guidance.

78. *Special Education*: Instruction, facilities, and services that pay particular attention to the educational needs of students having physical or mental handicaps.

79. *Subject*: Curriculum experience in the classroom organized in compartments or departments of learning, like English, mathematics, science, and the like.

80. *Subject-Centered Curriculum*: Subject matter mastery and skills are the main objectives. The content is fixed, and is chosen in advance, largely on the basis of its value in adult living. The planning is usually by the teacher, and the subjects are largely separated from each other.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Experience-Centered Curriculum.)

81. *Subject Matter*: Includes what men know and believe, and their ideals and loyalties, but not everything they have created. An institution such as the family is not subject matter, but what is known and believed about the family.—(After Smith, Stanley, and Shores.)

82. *Survey Courses*: Selection, development, and fusion of selected content of different courses into general education learning, helping the student to think more clearly and to obtain information relative to life issues. Often, however, they are a superficial coverage of material pulled out of more complete and detailed courses; as such, they do not have much meaning.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Broad Field Organization of Subjects.)

83. *Symposium*: Several persons who are experts, or who have made a special study of a topic, present their several views before an audience. The presentations may be followed by discussion consisting of a more or less formal interchange of ideas among the speakers and audience.—(After Ruth Strang.) (See also Forum; Panel.)

84. *Teacher-Pupil Planning*: Teaching in which the students work with the teacher in developing goals and experiences, finding materials, and evaluating progress. It is not a day-by-day process, but may extend for a week, month, or semester. Much preplanning by the teacher is required.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.)

85. *Teaching Unit*: A unit or segment of learning as it is actually carried out with the students. It is centered about a central problem, issue, idea, or topic.—(See also Resource Unit; Unit.)

86. *Ten Imperative Educational Needs of Youth* (secondary education): (1) Salable skills. (2) Health and Fitness. (3) Citizenship. (4) Family Life. (5) Consumer Competency. (6) Science and Its Methods. (7) Appreciation of Art and so on. (8) Use of Leisure. (9) Ethical Values. (10) Thinking and Communication, and so on.—(From *Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, March, 1947.)

87. *Textbook Teaching*: Teaching based mainly on the content and procedures of one or several textbooks.

88. *Three-Track or Differentiated Curriculum*: An attempt to vary somewhat the quantity and difficulty of subject matter pursued by students differentiated into three ability groups (bright, average, and dull).—(After J. Paul Leonard.) (See also Parallel Track Curriculum.)

89. *Tool Subject*: Learning fields in which achievement consists mainly in acquisition of skills and techniques useful in further learning. Examples of tool subjects are reading, arithmetic, and spelling.

90. *Topical Organization of Curriculum*: From the field to be studied, a list of im-

portant principles, concepts, generalizations, or understandings is selected, to be grasped, proved, or learned.—(See also Cultural Organization of Curriculum.)

91. *Town Meeting*: A situation in which general discussion of important issues is allowed, even where the decisions may not be in the hands of the discussants.—(After Ruth Strang.)

92. *Understanding*: A generalization of experience that is used as a guide to future experience. It is an outgrowth of experience, not memorization. It is similar to concept, but is broader in scope.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.) (See also Concept.)

93. *Unified Courses*: The fusion or combining of two or more usually required subjects into a coherent whole, in an otherwise departmentalized organization. The subjects retain their identity, and subject-oriented knowledge outcomes are emphasized. Examples are literature and history, English and social studies, biology and English, and social studies and science.—(See also Correlation of Subjects; Fusion.)

94. *Unit*: The organization of learning activities around certain themes, topics, problems, or pupil purposes, in blocks of time ranging usually from one week to several weeks.—(After Vernon E. Anderson.)

95. *Values*: The rules of conduct by which people shape their behavior and from which they derive their hopes.—(After Smith, Stanley, and Shores.)

96. *Vicarious Experience*: Learning that is not accomplished by direct experience with an object or situation. Words, pictures, charts, graphs, and other symbols are used instead of reality.

97. *Winnetka Plan*: A plan of individual instruction once used at Winnetka, Illinois. Each student proceeds with assignments, instruction, and evaluation as an individual at his own rate. A year's work may be completed in as little as six months, or may take as long a period as one and a half years to complete.

98. *Workshop*: The participants (experienced teachers or other professional persons) work co-operatively during most or all of the day for two weeks or longer on practical common problems. The participants determine their own goals, schedule, and procedures. Speakers, consultants, laboratory, excursions, small groups, and social activities—all are utilized. Teaching, examinations, and grades are usually lacking, but credit is given. There may be a final evaluation or written summary.—(See also Clinic; Institute.)

◆

Liberal Education for All.—A vigorous case for liberal education is now being made by many of my fellow businessmen who are finding that training in science or engineering or administration is not sufficient preparation for good managers. Business needs managers with more breadth and depth than this training gives. But it would be a travesty on democracy to limit the best kind of education to the few. This is a frail reed on which to base the case for liberal education. It is needed for everyone, because everyone is a manager in a society which expects everyone to manage his own life and to have the last word in the management of the state.—RAYMOND H. WITTCOFF in the North Central Association Quarterly.

Classroom or School Libraries

Must We Choose Between Them?

By MARY K. JAHN

IT IS NOT SURPRISING in a world of specialization and departmentalization to learn that teachers want classroom libraries. They are eager to have ready access to teaching aids and they desire to support any means that will save time and inconvenience. To them a selection of books chosen personally for their specific needs, located at hand, is to be preferred to a collection chosen by the librarian and located perhaps several floors and corridors distant.

It is understandable that administrators hold a correlative theory for decentralization of the school library. They feel it is sound pedagogical practice to supplement text materials on a daily basis; hence to have extra materials at arm's reach makes for enriched teaching. Also, administrators feel that to allocate budget appropriations for library materials by departments instead

of through the school library will be much easier and more equable. Another factor which appeals to administrators is the elimination of classes passing through the halls to the library during class periods.

The third group to be considered regarding classroom libraries is the librarians themselves. Of what advantage to them is decentralization of the school library and the promotion of classroom libraries? Apparently they will have more time to order, classify, and catalogue books. But what books? Encyclopedias, fiction, biography, and general nonfiction. (Reference and supplementary enrichment material will be handled by the teachers, ordering for classroom libraries.) The librarians will have an opportunity to build up pamphlet, picture, and vocation files. But who will use them? Classes will now remain in their classrooms where materials are available. Librarians will be able to compile bibliographies for teachers, but the teachers will then be obliged to leave their classroom libraries to use the services of the school library.

The fourth and last group to be considered in the decentralization of the school library is the students. It will be so convenient for the pupil doing a project or term paper to have his classroom teacher hand him four or five books she has chosen on the subject. He will not be subjected to the arduous task of research—of looking in many books and choosing tidbits of learning from each, organizing them, and learning how to correlate, discriminate, and embody a mass of research into a unified, cohesive, and well-written term paper. No, he will be spoon-fed and saved hours of work in the li-

EDITOR'S NOTE

In the February, '59, Clearing House appeared an article by Louise Klohn, "Classroom or School Libraries?" Here is a rebuttal of the arguments presented in that issue. Our present author is librarian at Montgomery Blair High School, Silver Spring, Maryland. She writes, "As a school librarian, I have written a reply to Miss Klohn's article. I am one of two librarians in a large suburban high school. We are resuming the formation of large classroom libraries, after having developed our school library from small classroom libraries. I have an immediate and deep interest in this subject and feel strongly about decentralizing the school library."

brary. He will profit from his teacher's understanding of his needs for his particular project; he will not be exposed to the supplementary material that the librarian with her training in research would be able to unearth for him.

All these so-called advantages will accrue from decentralization of school libraries and promotion of classroom libraries. Let us now examine the disadvantages to each of these groups: teachers, administrators, librarians, and students.

It is true that the classroom teacher should be given all the aids possible to make her teaching easier and fuller. Well-chosen and easily accessible books which supplement her teaching cannot help but aid her. However, as harrassed as teachers are these days, with extra clerical work of register keeping, ranking of students, administration of mental measurement tests, inventory taking, and record keeping, I believe most of them will feel it an extra burden to manage a classroom library when they realize the incidentals involved. No matter what system the librarian, teacher, principal, or supervisor devises for the administration of a classroom library, the teacher herself will be the one responsible for the books. If classroom library books are to be available to the students, a system of circulating the books must be devised. It is the teacher's duty to see that each student has a fair opportunity to use all materials in the collection. A record must be kept where each book is at all times, and how many times each book is used. This will aid her in future book selection and purchase. The teacher will have to evaluate her collection periodically to determine what titles she should duplicate, replace, or discard. In the event of loss, the classroom teacher will have to fix the responsibility for replacement or payment.

All these disadvantages are possible for the average classroom teacher. Now, what about those teachers who move from one classroom to another throughout the day

with no place to house their libraries? What about the shop teacher whose classroom is filled with machinery and supplies? Can he find a suitable place for a collection of books? Another factor to be considered is the possibility that a teacher with a classroom library may be transferred or retired. What happens then? Is the new teacher required to conform to the predecessor's selections and policies?

As an administrative problem, classroom libraries can be a headache. If the loss from a certain teacher's library is heavy, does the administration hold that teacher responsible? Where is the financial responsibility laid? Is the administrator proud of his well-organized *empty* school library? What percentage of the budget does the administration allot for various departments and on what basis should some departments receive more than others? Is the administration informed concerning expensive reference books or encyclopedias necessary to certain subject areas, which will be published in the near future and for which special allowance should be provided? Does the administration or the classroom teacher know what supplies are necessary in order to operate a classroom library, or where to secure them?

Many are the disadvantages classroom libraries bring to librarians. Instead of one library, there are many—as many as there are classrooms—each demanding the full operation of a complete library, no matter how small. Though each school sets up its own classroom library system, the school librarian should know what library materials are available throughout the school. Therefore, whether the classroom library is an extension of the school library or a separate entity, the librarian must have a record. She will be a glorified clerk, administering a scanty collection. She no longer has to read professional literature—either in education or in library science—for she no longer teaches, nor has she a library situation.

The students will be deprived of an educational experience. They will not come to the library as a class to do research on papers and projects. They will not be guided in the use of general reference tools and they will be satisfied with superficial research with the few books at hand in the classroom. In failing to use the school library, students will miss the extracurricular advantages. No longer will they just happen to notice the latest book about their favorite hobby or sport, nor will they know when the latest issue of their periodical is available. Moreover, they will not be acquainted with the librarian, who is, or should be, the friend and adviser to all.

Fortunately, there is a solution to this problem of decentralization of the school library and the promotion of classroom libraries. There is a "happy medium." We can maintain and strengthen our school libraries, enriching them with excellent reference materials, current information, and books of general interest. We can provide them with supplementary materials in every subject, beyond the reach and scope of classroom libraries. We can utilize our school library as the resource center which maintains the organization and is the fountainhead of the classroom libraries.

The classroom libraries can be extensions of the central school library, acting much the same as branch libraries in relation to the main public library. They can be a part of the school library, administered by the librarian. Teachers then would aid the librarian in book selection and in circulation of the books within the class. The librarian would order, process, and circulate the books to the classroom. She would keep the final circulation records and make the general inventory. She would at all times know what material is available in the school and where it could be immediately located. The classroom libraries could be chosen from the main collection by individual teachers, for indefinite loan periods. Teachers could select whatever they needed for an indefinite period, and at the same time could maintain on permanent loan basic reference and text materials.

We need no longer face the issue: school library versus classroom libraries. We can promote classroom libraries and at the same time strengthen our school library. Teachers, administrators, librarians, and students would benefit from such organization and co-operation. It would enrich the curriculum, aid teachers and students, and foster a sound, workable library program.



When the educational program is grafted upon firmly rooted staff morale, the teachers work together in an atmosphere of dedication and motivation. The child, in turn, senses the continuity and the unity of the total educational experience. For the child there are security and understanding. For the teachers there are status and satisfaction. For the community there is a sense of reality and significance. Staff morale feeds a high level of professionalism which results in better education for children as well as greater importance for teachers.—LORRAINE W. ADDELSTON in *Intercom*.

PUPIL TALK

By EDGAR F. ROSS

TWO KINDS OF TALK, "teacher talk" and "pupil talk," are spoken in the classroom and, while I speak the former ("Do I see what I think I see, Johnny?"), I have always found the latter to be full of charm and flavor. In this article, I list thirty examples of pupil talk I have relished.

In each case, the first statement is what the pupil said to me as his seventh-grade official-and-social-studies-teacher and the second statement is my translation of the first statement.

The Home Room

1. "Gosh, wasn't it cold this morning!"
"Don't mark me down for coming in late."
2. "You going downtown again this afternoon?"
"Will we get out promptly at 3:00 this afternoon?"
3. "Do you remember any math?"
"Show me how to do this math homework."
4. "Were you good in English when you went to school?"
"Show me how to do this English homework."
5. "I have a headache. Can I stay here when the class goes to gym?"
"I forgot my gym uniform and don't want to be marked down."
6. "Does the class have to visit the library today?"
"I owe \$2.50 on a book at the library."

Tests

7. "Can I go on patrol with you the first period?"
"We're having a science test the first period."

8. "Can we visit Central Park next Friday?"
"We're having a math test next Friday."
9. "Can I stay and help you with the posters next period?"
"We're having an English test next period."
10. "Are you a good friend of Mr. Brown?"
"Did Mr. Brown tell you how I did on the Spanish test?"
11. "Did 7-3 have the same test we're having this afternoon?"
"Should I talk to 7-3 during lunch?"
12. "It's awfully hot today, isn't it?"
"Give us the test tomorrow."
13. "Are you going to mark these papers?"
"Should I do this exercise?"
14. "Let's have a quiz!"
"I studied last night."

Leaving the Room

15. "Boy, did we run in gym last period!"
"In thirty seconds I'm asking for the pass."
16. "This room is hot!"
"In thirty seconds I'm asking for the pass."
17. "Mary's been out of the room for ten minutes!"
"Don't yell at me the next time I stay out ten minutes!"
18. (Girl) "Can I go to Mr. Scott to ask him something?"
"That cute boy's in Mr. Scott's room this period."

EDITOR'S NOTE

The author of this semantic double talk is a social studies teacher at Junior High School 43—Manhattanville Junior High School—at 129th Street and Amsterdam Avenue in New York City.

Grades

19. "Didn't I do well when the principal was in the room last month?"

"It's report-card time. *Quid pro quo!*"

20. "That's a nice suit you have on."

"Raise my 85 to a 90 this marking period!"

21. "Is Columbia a good college?"

"I'm college bound. You have to give me a good mark!"

Discipline

22. "That Miss Smith is very strict!"

"Miss Smith gave me a *D* last period."

23. "Haven't I been very good this week?"

"My mother's coming to P.T.A. tonight."

24. "Is sewing a major subject?"

"I think she's going to fail me for talking so much in sewing."

25. "You forgot to give me my *A* yesterday."

"Don't give me a *D* for talking today."

26. "I've never been absent, have I?"

"I'm not all bad, am I?"

Peer Relationships

27. "May I pick up those pieces of paper next to Alice's desk?"

"I have to whisper something to Alice."

28. "You forgot to give Susan her *A* today."

"Susan is going to recommend me for *A* tomorrow."

29. "I can't see the film from here."

"I want to sit next to Freddy."

30. "Let's have the class elections this afternoon!"

"Three friends of my rival for Class President are absent today."

Ends and Means in Education

Education, however, as we have emphasized, can never be a purely autonomous process, independent of time and place, conducted according to its own laws. There have been as many educations in history as there have been human societies. It is as much an integral part of a culture or civilization as an economic or political system. The very way in which education is conceived, whether its purpose is to enslave or free the mind, is an expression of the society which it serves. Although all educational programs in the world today should embrace the conception of a common humanity, no such program as a whole should be regarded as an article of export either with or without the support of dollars or machine guns. Of necessity an education is a most intimate expression of a particular civilization.

We must seek the broad outlines of a great education therefore, not in the nature of the child, nor

in the traditional practices of the school, nor yet in any single segment of our civilization. Such an education must embrace four great tasks in a free society. First of all, it must assure mastery on the part of the younger generation of the essential practical skills and knowledges of the social heritage. Second, it must promote with unflagging zeal an understanding of the world as it is and as it is becoming. Third, it must strive without apology to inculcate in the young loyalty to the great values of a society of free men. Fourth, it must stress the universal in the total human heritage, stimulate the creative faculties of man, and contribute to the advancement of all the humane arts and sciences. Such an education might serve to prevent catastrophe and facilitate the birth of an age of abundance, freedom, justice, beauty, and peace for all mankind.—GEORGE S. COUNTS in *Teachers College Record*.

The Secondary School of 1985

By JOHN H. CHILCOTT

THE PUBLIC CREDITS the high school of twenty-five years ago with accomplishing so much more than the high school of 1960 that one is hesitant in suggesting changes which might take place during the next twenty-five years. Nevertheless, I believe it is healthier to look forward than backward. Perhaps in speculating about the high school of 1985, we might better understand the high school of today.

If the American public will permit it, the high school of 1985 will be vastly different from today's modern comprehensive high school. With the increase in population of metropolitan areas, enrollments will double in size. The small high school will be replaced by boarding schools serving large rural areas. Buildings will go skyward, not outward. Means of mass transportation such as escalators will whisk students from floor to floor. New types of architecture and building materials as yet unknown will be utilized.

The classrooms themselves will be as unfamiliar to us as some of the present-day science classrooms must be to our parents. These classrooms will be termed learning centers. They will be filled with many kinds

of electronic devices. An English teacher, for example, will be discussing a scene from Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*. At the appropriate moment she will insert a properly punched card into a slot. A screen will light and the scene under discussion will be enacted by professional actors. At the end of the scene the class will return to their discussion. With learning reinforced in this manner, Shakespeare will virtually "come alive" for the student. In a science classroom a student or students may be working on a project concerned with the planet Mars. They will go to a corner of the room, select the correctly punched card, insert it in a slot, and view a complete lecture on the planet, geared to their maturity level and reinforced with many visual aids. In addition to the hearing lecture, the students will be provided with an inexpensive paperbacked study guide which will summarize the lecture, provide additional information, include an annotated bibliography, and suggest further learning experiences in which the students might engage. The study guides will be constructed by a team of subject matter and pedagogical experts in science.

The present-day textbook, as we know it, will be obsolete. Students in 1985 will cover much more material and in so many different approaches that a text would have to be too large and too expensive to encompass the subject. Study guides, paperbacks, and pamphlets will replace the textbook. Mrs. Little, the librarian of 1985, will be far busier than she is today, for the study guides will suggest many primary and secondary sources of information to supplement the classroom experience. The library also will provide the audio-visual sources for the electronic devices in the classroom. Fortunately, these sources will be furnished

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is the substance of a radio talk which the author gave a few months ago in California. Apparently the topic stirred the interest of many people. Gazing into the future is by no means a new pastime but it is always an intriguing one. Furthermore, the date in the title bears a close resemblance to the title of the best-selling novel by George Orwell. Remember?

The writer is assistant professor of education, University of California at Santa Barbara.

through automation instead of manual manipulation.

I would predict also that the experts who will construct the study guides will utilize many of the results of the behavioral sciences in the area of motivation research. Perhaps you recall the little volume published a few years ago, called *The Hidden Persuaders*, in which the results of motivation research were described as they were being applied in the fields of advertising and public relations. Why not make a student *want* to learn, just as he *wants* a certain cigarette, car, or elected official? Picture if you can, a high-school student in 1985 viewing a principle in physics and at the same time "learning" the formula involved in the principle by means of symbols projected on the screen for so short a time as to be visible only to the subconscious mind.

The monolithic high schools of 1985 will be organized along the lines on which colleges are now organized; that is, there will be many separate departments within the school, each with separate faculties, facilities, and students. Some courses will be required of all students, much as all college freshmen are required to take the same English course. Beyond the required courses, students will specialize under the

direction of their department. In a highly complex and technical society such as we will undoubtedly have in 1985, every student will be graduated from high school as a specialist or with a foundation from which he can pursue further education. Because of the additional amount of knowledge which an average citizen will need in order to survive in the complex society, the school year will be lengthened and students will remain in school longer, probably through what we now call the junior college years. Adults lacking the prerequisites essential for survival in 1985 will return to school in the evenings to complete their education.

In spite of the large number of students involved and in spite of the standardization of teaching procedures, an ample amount of attention will be devoted to the individual. Even though many educators might object, society will place more and more of the child-raising functions of home, church, and society in general onto the school. Teachers will become, in effect, professional parents to their students.

Many of us may not like these changes in the high school. Perhaps we will recall the high school of 1959 and wish our children were getting the more formal training such as we have today.



No citizen, be he the richest or most powerful man in the city, earns half of the love or the warm remembrance for a lifetime that the good teacher earns. Yet teaching, too, can lead to bitterness. Even the ablest young people should not head toward teaching unless they are sure they love children and youth more than they do the art, the science, or the math they want to teach.—JOHN E. GRINNELL in *Illinois Education*.

Book Reviews

FORREST A. IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

Legal and Ethical Responsibilities of School Personnel by WARREN E. GAUERKE. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 302 pages, \$4.95.

The problem of what really constitutes an optimum pattern of ethical behavior and attitudes for school personnel is constantly with us. The "rights and wrongs" of professionalism are often confused in the variety of points of view, situations, and pressures with which educators are periodically faced. Dr. Gauerke helps to unravel this confusion by placing ethical behavior in its historical and legal context.

Well versed in the law himself, the author effectively fabricates his points with the threads of legal understanding. In nontechnical language, he explains the role of the school, the administrator, the teacher, and the pupil in our democracy. Wherever possible, he removes the factors of confusion and controversy by establishing legal privileges, rights, obligations, and relationships.

The book is more than fact. The author does not hesitate to diverge into points of related interest and express opinions regarding them. The fact that he does not always follow through on a legal point, for instance, before turning to ethical, historical, or philosophical considerations may bother the more scholarly reader. Since this book was obviously not only intended for the advanced student, however, this should not be a major deterrent to acceptance of it. There can be no doubt that these factors are intertwined, and, on the whole, the author has done an effective job of considering them together.

The organization of the book is helpful. Following an introductory chapter on the American legal system and the problem of professional ethics and another on the history of education, the remaining chapters are based on personnel relationships, i.e., principal-personnel relationships, parent-personnel relationships, and so on. Every aspect of teacher relationships is covered in the seven chapters devoted to them. By using the chapter outline and, perhaps, the index, it is easy for the reader to locate a topic of interest to him.

Within the chapters, the material is usually presented in relation to legal aspects and ethical aspects. When there are major subheadings

within a chapter, they are also organized in this way. This arrangement helps to pinpoint the concepts as they are presented.

The use of cases in connection with some of the material makes the material even more comprehensible, and provides a handy approach for the instructor who wishes to provide problem situations for his students. Most of the cases are brief and are used to illustrate the concerns related to a specific topic or chapter. It was the feeling of this reviewer that more comprehensive problem situations might be more useful, but this represents a personal preference in the use of case material.

In addition to the cases, the book contains questions for study, suggested readings, and a complete bibliography. It should be a valuable book in teacher- and administrator-preparation programs, as well as for teachers and administrators in service.

ROBERT W. BRITTELL

Management in Family Living (3d ed.) by PAULENA NICKELL and JEAN MUIR DORSEY. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959. 551 pages, \$6.95.

The third edition of *Management in Family Living* by Paulena Nickell and Jean Muir Dorsey represents a well-organized, well-documented, and smoothly written coverage of a major facet of the broad and complex subject of family living in our rapidly changing society. The focus of the book is upon planned management and what it means to the family and to the individuals of the family.

The authors state their objective to be that of presenting a study of "(1) management responsibilities and the development of a method of analyzing and meeting them in family living; (2) the place of management in homemaking and family life; and (3) the contribution of management in the democratic home to the development of the socially adjusted individual."

Part I presents the underlying philosophy of the book, as well as much of the material in support of the third objective, "the contribution of management in the democratic home to the development of the socially adjusted individual." With Part I as a background, one is impressed by the logic and sequence of the remainder of the book. The book is replete with cur-

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rent charts, tables, and diagrams to support and illustrate the concepts and issues presented. The references cited to document the major ideas, together with the bibliographies which appear at the end of each chapter, provide the reader with valuable and extensive sources for further exploration.

No book, irrespective of organization and content, can be any better than its readableness. An outstanding feature of *Management in Family Living* is the ease and clarity of communication which characterize the entire book. The authors write in an easy, simple, and direct style and manner, and comprehension and understanding are not blocked by numerous unrelated and tangential threads.

On the basis of the philosophy which guides the entire presentation and on the basis of the clear logic of the book's organization, it would seem that *Management in Family Living* could be used most effectively for at least three purposes:

(1) an exhaustive and a current textbook for college classes in the special area of family living; (2) an appealing and readable reference source for adult study groups; and (3) a supplementary reading reference for courses or study groups in the general area of human development.

FRED R. THOMPSON

Plane Trigonometry by A. W. GOODMAN.
New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.,
1959. 267 pages, \$4.50 with tables, \$3.75
without tables.

One of the most favorable impressions of the reviewer regarding this text is the remarkable clarity with which the material has been presented. The author has obviously taken great pains consistently to direct the discussion to the student, and the result is most unusual and thoroughly satisfactory.

While the approach is mainly traditional, the text does incorporate several noteworthy innovations. The general distance formula is presented and used to derive the law of cosines; moreover, it plays a predominant role in the construction of a general proof of the formula for the cosine of the sum of two angles, a proof which is based ultimately upon the invariance of the distances between two points under a rotation of the plane. A principle of duality for trigonometric identities, which, in the opinion of the reviewer, is not common knowledge, has also been presented and should prove to be a happy addition to the subject matter of trigonometry.

It should be pointed out that the author has chosen initially to define the trigonometric functions for an acute angle as ratios of sides in a right triangle. While this approach is classical, it has been all but completely forsaken in recent years. In any event, the organization of the subject matter of the text presents no problems to those who wish to begin with the generalized definitions.

The unique features which the author has incorporated as well as the spirit in which the material has been treated make this book a valuable contribution to the study of trigonometry.

RALPH T. HEIMER

Your Student Teaching in the Secondary School by VINCENT MCGUIRE, ROBERT B. MYERS, and CHARLES L. DURRANCE. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. 343 pages, \$5.95.

In bringing out a new book in the field of education, an author has the task of presenting established ideas in new and attractive surroundings. This is true especially in areas where several good books already have been written. Probably the strongest characteristics of this book are the originality of presentation and the practicality of material.

The authors use the technique of frequently inserting actual experiences of student teachers and their supervisors to illustrate methods and techniques of teaching. These insertions are in italics and are readable even without the continuity of the text.

Before he enters the classroom the student teacher is presented with a sound background in problems related to the profession. It is a matter of breaking him in gradually to the task at hand. The material is presented in such a fashion as to cause the student teacher to think through his problems rather than to seek a quick answer.

The authors do a good job in the treatment of some of the most troublesome problems of student teachers. The approach to discipline is both frank and psychologically sound. It does not minimize the problem, but it does suggest that good planning and proper attention to details with fairness in attitude toward boys and girls will go a long way in reaching satisfactory solutions. The book is rich in the abundance of approaches suggested for the proper presentation of subject matter.

In summation it may be said the book is better than anything in the field at present. It covers the usual pattern accepted in the preparation of student teachers. It is readable and

should prove to be appealing to prospective students.

The mechanics and make-up of the book are good. It is exceptionally well illustrated.

DELMAS F. MILLER

Secondary School Teaching Methods by LEONARD H. CLARK and IRVING S. STARR. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. 340 pages, \$5.00.

The prospective teacher will find in Professor Clark and Dean Starr's book a text that is exceptionally readable. Writing in that economical, straightforward style so popular with students, the authors attack every aspect of the secondary-school-teacher's duties. It is apparent that a comprehensive analysis of the responsibilities of teaching provided the framework for this book. Accordingly the term "methods" in the title should be interpreted in the broadest possible manner. The chapters, "The Teacher and Extra-Class Responsibilities" and "The Beginning Teacher," reach beyond the routine material one comes to expect in works of this nature. These chapters, along with some of the others, are written with a real feeling for the apprehensions of the neophyte.

Whenever possible, the authors have given concrete suggestions and outlined procedure. But this is not a mere "how-to-do-it" book. Although the writers state that they "have omitted discussions of educational theory except when it seemed necessary to explain the why of methods advocated," they go on quickly to explain (and the reader should bear it in mind) that "the emphasis is, of necessity, on principles rather than recipes." Particularly evident is this fact when the book deals with such sensitive areas as evaluation, reporting to parents, and discipline. Discussion of techniques is here ancillary to discussion of philosophy involved. Nevertheless, the student cannot complain of excessive theoretical consideration, for adequate practical treatment is given.

The thought-provoking questions liberally dispersed within the chapters provide valuable study and discussion aids at the appropriate junctures. The abundant examples of the forms discussed and the two appendixes—a resource unit and the N.E.A. Code of Ethics—indicate how the book is designed for the convenience of the student and the instructor. At the same time, enough stimulation is provided by the text to encourage the student to seek elsewhere more elaborate development of the numerous areas covered therein.

FRANCIS A. COLABRESE

For the Junior High School and Up

NORTH STAR BOOKS

TRUE STORIES OF PEOPLE
AND EVENTS FROM
AMERICA'S PAST



AN OUTSTANDING NEW SERIES
BY
AMERICA'S LEADING AUTHORS

Sterling North: General Editor



NEW YORK 16 ATLANTA 5
GENEVA, ILL. DALLAS 1 PALO ALTO

Understanding Human Development by
HOWARD LANE and MARY BEAUCHAMP.
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall,
Inc., 1959. 492 pages, \$6.00.

There has been a trend in recent years to make textbooks more palatable. For several reasons, this is one of the most readable books I have ever taken in hand. Though brisk, the writing reflects warmth and understanding—it is the work of two people who have taught, helped, and enjoyed children. Topic and subtopic headings tell the reader how the authors developed their ideas. Many pages are brightened with effective line drawings.

The book is aimed primarily at undergraduate students preparing to teach. With its fresh wisdom, however, this text should prove of value to all teachers and administrators interested in the development of boys and girls during the first twenty years of life.

The authors organize their material in three principal sections. In section I, "The Foundations of Human Behavior," they examine the origin and meaning of children's behavior in home, school, and community settings. In section II, "Growth from Conception to Young

Adulthood," they discuss phases of children's physical, emotional, social, and mental development. In section III, "How to Study Children and Youth," they present ways of understanding children's behavior, including methods and techniques appropriate to group situations.

But any listing of section or chapter headings would fail to catch this book's whimsey, its mellowness, its sense of quiet urgency about teaching. Many case illustrations, written informally and woven skillfully into the text, show how teachers' understanding and affection are basic ingredients in the education of their pupils.

In my opinion, the authors realize fully the purpose they themselves saw in their book: "It is intended as a guide for nurturing the infinite capacities of human beings so that they may flower into self-respecting, dignified, freedom-loving people who can live and prosper in an interdependent culture."

LOUIS J. CANTONI

Comedies and Farces for Teen-Agers by
JOHN MURRAY. Boston: Plays, Inc., 1959.
387 pages, \$4.95.

John Murray's *Comedies and Farces for Teen-Agers* offers exactly what the title implies. Most amateur drama directors and teachers are constantly searching for plays which are versatile, flexible, economical to produce yet fully entertaining—and which will also "sell" to prospective audiences.

One will find in this book much versatility in play style, ranging from a hilarious situation farce ("The Mish-Mosh Bird") to comedy melodrama ("I Love You, Mr. Klotz") plus thirteen additionally versatile entertainment pieces. One will find flexibility in this collection in that most of the fifteen plays may easily be adapted also to radio or television scripts. Every director looks for this kind of flexibility. To aid the technical aspect of play production, Mr. Murray has included a useful set of production notes for each play, to aid the director who has had no technical theater training and to serve as ideas for those who are experienced in technical production. One can foresee that these plays may be produced without high overhead and high production costs. This is a very realistic selection of plays for many small schools which have no budget at all with which to work. It is of value to these people to note that any selection from *Comedies and Farces for Teen-Agers* may be produced by any amateur group without payment of royalty fee. Furthermore the playwright has apparently had low budget costs in mind in his recommendation for simplified lighting, costuming, and set requirements.

All in all, I recommend this fine collection of plays highly; they seem to fit the need of all secondary-school amateur theater groups. Besides being an excellent addition to one's personal reading shelf, it seems to offer exactly what amateur theater producers are looking for: versatility of style, flexibility of staging, and the economical aspects necessary for low-budget organizations.

TOBY W. RIGBY

Learning to Work in Groups by MATTHEW B. MILES. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. 285 pages, \$5.00.

"The emphasis in this book is primarily on ways of solving problems, processes, procedures—how people behave in groups—rather than on the content of specific problems. Group process skills are in effect the fundamentals with which the book is concerned." The author hopes the book will be of value in industry, in social agencies, in government, and in education.

Dr. Miles's book resembles a number of other books already available which present enthusiastically the elements of group dynamics developed by the National Training Laboratory at Bethel, Maine, and employed widely in "leadership training institutes" conducted throughout the country. A reader who is not a member of this in-group will have trouble understanding some of the terms which are used and the rationale for some of the procedures which are recommended. However, *Learning to Work in Groups* is easier to read than some other books on group dynamics and is recommended as an interesting and reliable introduction to a theory of leadership that has had a considerable influence in every part of the United States.

JOHN CARR DUFF

Paperbounds Received

From BANTAM BOOKS, INC., 25 West 45th St., New York 36, N.Y.:

Fathers and Sons by IVAN TURGENEV, 1959. 208 pages, 50 cents.

The Finest Stories of Sean O'Faolain by SEAN O'FAOLAIN, 1959. 336 pages, 50 cents.

Madame Bovary by GUSTAVE FLAUBERT, 1959. 303 pages, 35 cents.

Rashomon and Other Stories by RYUNOSUKE AKUTAGAWA, 1959. 118 pages, 35 cents.

The Red and the Black by STENDHAL, 1959. 506 pages, 75 cents.

Seventeen by BOOTH TARKINGTON, 1959. 184 pages, 35 cents.

Washington Square by HENRY JAMES, 1959. 162 pages, 35 cents.

From NEW AMERICAN LIBRARY OF WORLD LITERATURE, INC., 501 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.:

Adolphe and the Red Notebook by BENJAMIN CONSTANT, 1959. 160 pages, 50 cents.

The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn by MARK TWAIN, 1959. 288 pages, 50 cents.

Islam in Modern History by WILFRED CANTWELL SMITH, 1959. 319 pages, 50 cents.

An Outline of Russian Literature by MARC SLONIM, 1959. 175 pages, 50 cents.

The Return of the Native by THOMAS HARDY, 1959. 413 pages, 50 cents.

The Scarlet Letter by NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE, 1959. 254 pages, 50 cents.

The Way of Zen by ALAN W. WATTS, 1959. 228 pages, 50 cents.

Wuthering Heights by EMILY BRONTË, 1959. 320 pages, 50 cents.

They Came to Cordura by GLENDON SWARTHOUT, 1959. 175 pages, 50 cents.

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Dr. Brittell is assistant dean of the School of Education, University of Pittsburgh.

Dr. Cantoni is an associate professor in the department of special education and vocational rehabilitation, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.

Mr. Colabrese, now an instructor in secondary education at Teachers College, Temple University, Philadelphia, was for five years a junior-high-school core teacher.

Dr. Duff is professor of education, department of administration and supervision, at New York University's School of Education.

Mr. Heimer is assistant professor of mathematics, Lock Haven State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania.

Dr. Miller, a new member of the CH Editorial Board, is principal of University High School and director of student teaching, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia.

Mr. Rigby is lecturer in the division of drama and English education at the University of Texas.

Dr. Thompson is professor of education at the Institute for Child Study, College of Education, University of Maryland.

➤ The Humanities Today ➤

Associate Editor: HENRY B. MALONEY

TV & NEWER MEDIA

"Comparison Proves—"

"Comparison proves . . ." say the advertisers. Mary Van Tamelen of the American Council for Better Broadcasts suggests in the following article that a good place for the English teacher to begin a study of television lies in a comparative appraisal of similar programs. Having sharpened his sense of critical awareness on the known world of television, the student is ready for explorations into the less familiar world of literature.

Back in the days when students went out from high school into activity, the classics they had studied in English literature had meaning in their lives. The situation is different today. It's not that the classics have lost any of their meaning but that the lives of the students are becoming further and further removed from the activities and human relationships the great writers dealt with. The fact is that the average person today goes out from high school and spends one-sixth of his waking time in passivity. This is one-sixth of each day devoid of work (except for turning on the television set), devoid of struggle (except vicariously and usually against a "guy" so "bad" that his counterpart in real life will never be met), devoid of laughter (except at an overworn joke which bears no resemblance to creative wit and interchange), and devoid of love (necessarily, for television viewing is a solitary activity). Some information may be gained, but essentially this mad moment in history concerns itself with entertainment, and entertainment which has become an opiate, dulling and very often dull.

It is time that the English curriculum be expanded to include what is fast engulfing it.

Television need not be an opiate. The viewer need only bring a critical awareness to it. The person who has lately exercised his power of judgment will find that muscle less weak than before, might even find it fun to keep it in top form. What better exercise than homework consisting of written reports on two television programs of contrasting quality?

This is only being realistic. Students need to be led up to an enjoyment of Shakespeare, for

Another way to better television can be found in the February 6, 1960, issue of *TV Guide*.

This issue contains a nominating ballot on which readers are asked to name their favorites in seven categories. A final ballot will be included in the March 12 issue of the magazine.

An independent agency will tabulate the results and the winners will be saluted in an hour-long program on March 25.

instance, and they can't leap up from an enjoyment of "Gunsmoke" (which far too frequently is where their parents are leaving them) all the way to *Macbeth*. One doesn't answer a child's question about the sun by reading to him from the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. One starts with the child's own conception of the sun, and gradually leads up to scientific facts. Just so, the comic relief provided by the drunken porter in *Macbeth* can best be understood by the students in their own terms. Was not comic relief one of the functions of that teen-age idol, Kookie Byrnes, in "77 Sunset Strip"?

And what better way to teach clear exposition than by asking for judgments on the expositions found on television? There are very good ones and very bad ones. Take two news commentators: Are all sides of the question presented fairly, without bias? Is reason rather than emotion appealed to? Are there signs of prejudice—name calling, distortions, implications, innuendoes? For appraisals on expository techniques, would not a comparison of "Face the Nation" and "Meet the Press" be invaluable?

Television needs a discriminating audience if both it and its audience are not to be overwhelmed with dullness. At the same time television presents a timely opportunity to teach critical discrimination. The results of the American Council for Better Broadcasts' annual look-listen project are now being tabulated and will be available shortly. Unlike other surveys, this project not only tabulates totals but also gives viewers an opportunity to indicate why they like or dislike a certain program. Typical comments are included in the results of the poll.

The A.C.B.B. also keeps tab of teachers' efforts in this field, and has in preparation a packet with specific suggestions for teaching television evaluation. Information about these items or the bi-monthly newsletter may be obtained from A.C.B.B. headquarters, 423 North Pinckney Street, Madison, Wisconsin.

Here is, in fact, an opportunity for turning one-sixth of the student's day from essentially a waste product into practice and preparation for the study of English. It needs only a helping hand from a teacher willing to reach across into the student's world.

IN PRINT

The Militant Apostle

The First Christian: a Study of St. Paul and Christian Origins by A. POWELL DAVIES. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1959. 237 pages, 50 cents.

A. Powell Davies' historical examination of St. Paul attempts to present the militant apostle as a man in whom the Hellenic and Hebraic traditions merged to form the new Christian, and who gave life force to the spreading roots of a Christian empire. Davies' Paul loses the mystery of divine miracle and takes on the stature of a calculating political figure. The book attributes to epilepsy his seizure on the road to Damascus, and most of the other incidents of wonder suffer similar reasonable explanations. Still, the book never grows flippant. Neither does it become tedious. Davies knows a powerful subject, and he does not allow the moral possibilities of Paul to go unnoticed. He writes: "Here indeed he [Paul] is 'neither Jew nor Greek' but just *man* breathing deeply of the breath of God, and it might be well if all men, no matter what their faith—or for that matter if they have none—would come even to the outer rim of this tremendous comprehension!" Like William Butler Yeats's conception of his "Primary Man," Davies sees a kind of salvation for the man who loses himself in something larger, who submerges his self in something vast and significant.

Davies, a Dead Sea Scroll authority, includes a study of Christian origins along with his treatment of St. Paul. This constitutes the book's major weakness, for the inclusion of Christ patterns before Jesus does not add much to an understanding of Paul. It seems as if he did not have enough material on either subject to warrant a book, and so he simply merged the two.

Still, Davies' examination of Hebraic and Hellenic influences on St. Paul adds more to the historical and religious greatness of the apostle who has inspired so many analyses, ranging from Albert Schweitzer's sympathetic study to George Bernard Shaw's headlong attack. Davies remains sympathetic without losing his historical objective. He tries to show that Paul's initial rabbinic thinking, modified by Nazarean elements, was cast in a Hellenistic mold, and that the result was not a new Judaism but rather a universal faith. Rather than depend upon Paul's statement that the Jews lost the Covenant because of their lack of faith, and that the New Covenant had gone over to the Gentiles, Davies prefers to think that Paul transcended any Messianic hope for his nation, and that he envisioned a vaster Christianity.

FREDERICK KILEY
Trenton State College

Bargain Books

The paperback has made it possible for everyone to become his own librarian. The public school is the place where we teachers will decide how much of the paperback's enormous potential for self-development will be realized. We intend in this roundup of paperbacks, old and new, to tell you how much pleasure and value we have derived from some of these bargain books. Consider this an open forum on paperbacks, where you can exchange opinions on other titles as well as ideas on how to use them in the classroom.

Look Back in Anger by JOHN OSBORNE. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1959. 119 pages, 35 cents.

Most famous of the literary productions of the British "angry young men," this is the drama of Jimmy Porter, who pits his sense of social justice against a world he never made. Jimmy's acid tongue lashes any available surrogate for the respectable world—wife, lover, dearest friend. Jimmy's is a literate expression of the rage and hatred one sometimes encounters in the blackboard jungle. *Look Back in Anger* is also now a movie. Teachers and sophisticated students (not necessarily the most literate) will enjoy reading the original and comparing the film adaptation.

The Mackerel Plaza by PETER DE VRIES. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1959. 190 pages, 35 cents.

A minister as modern as fin 'tails decides to marry a new wife before his parishioners have finished commemorating his late first bride. The sentimentality of the old-time religionists on the one hand (billboards reading "Jesus Saves" in phosphorescent green and orange) v. the modernity of People's Liberal ("the first split-level church in America") on the other, offers a parody of the excesses of both. De Vries has a witty, sometimes bawdy, style.

The American High School Today by JAMES BRYANT CONANT. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959. 140 pages, \$1.00.

(1) Conant's much discussed report on the present status of the American high school, with suggestions for its greater efficiency, economy, and educational value. (2) Many of Conant's ideas are taken for granted by leading critics of public education, but some (such as his suggested minimal requirements in foreign languages) are revolutionary. (3) Necessary reading for administrators, teachers, parents, and students interested in knowing public education.

Blue Denim by JAMES LEO HERLIHY and WILLIAM NOBLE. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1958. 118 pages, 35 cents.

A play, also now a movie, about a problem that is growing in American high schools. Janet and Arthur, both of respectable families, stumble into an illegitimate pregnancy. The reader must allow that two so callow (too callow, the metropolitan teacher may feel) children could make such an adult mistake. The drama reveals, however, a teen-ager both more sophisticated (about the values of adults) and less (about love and sex) than his popular image presents. Teachers may see a new view of teen-age values; students, under wise and careful guidance, may develop a mature outlook on a major problem.

MARY E. HAZARD
Levittown, Pennsylvania

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ARTHUR T. BRICE

Phase Films

Sonoma, California

From the Critics' Notebook

THE U.N. AND TV (John Crosby in the New York *Herald-Tribune* for November 22, 1959): "I think I've set some kind of record," Harold Rasky will tell you. 'I've been in broadcasting for ten years and never had a sponsor.' Rasky's present show is the *U.N. In Action* [Sunday 11:00 A.M. C.B.S.-TV] and the huge United Nations building, which he roams for CBS, is his personal private Radio City. The U.N., which had vast dreams when it was built, has an immense and beautifully equipped television studio—its equipment equalling that in the RCA building. Mostly—except in a few periods of great crisis—the great built-in TV camera booths, the marvelous control rooms stand idle. Only the *U.N. In Action* goes on week in week out, year in year out, with Harry Rasky who views the delegates pretty much like a talent roster. . . .

"This little program, off in a little corner of television, receives much more world attention than any other. We had Foreign Minister Couve de Murville of France on in what seemed a very innocent interview discussing the problem of Algeria. It ended causing quite a stir. All he said was 'We're ready to negotiate with the FLM.' This was the first time this was said. We got calls immediately from Paris and now the French aren't speaking to me.' A few minutes later, a Frenchman passed Rasky looking stiffly straight ahead. 'You see,' said Rasky, 'the French won't talk to me.'

"Mostly, the *U.N. In Action* is live. Rasky does the show from the delegates' lounge or from the corridors. 'The U.N.,' says Rasky—and I heartily agree—'is the best TV studio anywhere on earth. Sometimes we tape a show to accommodate the delegates but mostly it's live. The impact of live TV is incredible. I suppose it would be fun to do a program some day that made money,' he said wistfully. 'But until then, it's nice to do something you know is important. . . .

"'Wouldn't it be nice if *U.N. In Action* got put in one of the time spots vacated by one of the quizzes? I do think there's a trend that way. This year for the first time they're carrying the documentaries like CBS Reports at night. So I think good things are going to happen.'"

A VISION OF EXCELLENCE (Robert Lewis Shayon in the *Saturday Review* for November 14, 1959): "In the spring of 1957, the Council for a Television Course in the Humanities for Secondary Schools never suspected that it would become the chief actor in a contemporary drama of dis-

announcing

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BOSTON

illusionment, suggestive of 'Hamlet.' Then the Fund for the Advancement of Education (Ford Foundation) asked the Council, which represents major educational and cultural institutions in the Boston area, to create a TV course in the humanities for high-school students of third-year English. 'Think big,' the Fund officials are reported to have told the Council. 'This course is intended to replace the conventional methods of teaching third-year English. It will be broadcast over educational TV stations. If you are not prepared to rise to this challenge, we will offer it to another city.' Rising to the challenge (which was generously baited with the promise of a budget of more than a million dollars), the Council's staff blocked out ninety-six lessons in drama, painting, sculpture, architecture, music, poetry, and prose. Involved in the preparation were noted university lecturers, classroom teachers, and TV, film, and theatre professionals.

"By the spring of 1959, workshops had been held, teachers' manuals prepared, scripts revised, and twelve pilot films (one introductory and eleven drama) had been shot, telecast, and tested in Boston and St. Louis. Reactions from 271 teachers and 8507 students in 137 eastern public, private and parochial schools were 'overwhelmingly favorable.' The Council had spent a little

over \$400,000; officials of the Fund for the Advancement of Education judged the pilot films 'superb.' At that moment the uses of this world seemed to the Council not at all "weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable." Two months later, this same world seemed much more like the melancholy 'unweeded garden' of Hamlet. Unexpectedly, the Fund had withdrawn its support. . . .

"As of this writing, the twelve pilot films may be purchased (not rented) by interested users from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, for the package price of \$2,880 in color (\$1,440 in black and white . . .). And in order to seek new support, the Council has voted to retain its . . . corporate entity. . . .

"We have a plethora of educational ventures trapped in the needs of hard-money considerations. What we urgently need are visions of excellence projected as if by beacons, high above the firing line of everyday life—visions of life as it ought to be rather than life as it is. Current philosophies of business and government usually disclaim any responsibility for such cultural space rocketry. It was once the fond (was it vain?) hope of some, that foundations would accept the quixotic job of creating a place for quality that didn't have to meet a payroll, or cover costs, or overcome the teacher-shortage. . . ."

➤ Audio-Visual News ➤

By EVERETT B. LARE

Audio-Visual Facilities for School Buildings

Many school systems are considering additional facilities at this time of the year, especially under the terms of the National Defense Education Act Title III, which applies to science, mathematics, and foreign languages and includes minor remodeling of rooms and audio-visual centers for effective use.

The Audio-Visual Commission on Public Information, Room 2290, 250 W. 57th St., New York City, has prepared a check list of minimum essentials for good audio-visual instruction. I am quoting from one of their brochures.

CLASSROOMS

The modern classroom is a place where projected teaching aids, radio, television, and tape recorders are used with books, maps, charts, models, and so on, as natural mediums for the teaching and learning processes. Facilities which will invite and encourage the regular use of audio-visual devices should, therefore, be included in new classrooms. Are you:

1. Providing for window style or construction such that light can be controlled?
 - a. Avoiding ceiling bubbles or skylights?
 - b. Avoiding glass corridor-panels or clerestory?
2. Providing for light control?
 - a. Darkening each classroom adequately for all projection uses?
 - b. Using drapes, shades, or full-closure blinds?
 - c. Providing adequate control of sunlight for ordinary uses?
3. Providing room dimensions that will make for easy screen viewing in each classroom?
4. Providing for adequate ventilation of each classroom through forced mechanical methods?
5. Providing for a map rail for the hanging of maps, screens, and so on.
6. Providing for a minimum of one electrical outlet at the front and rear of each room?
7. Providing a light switch near the projection area in the classroom?

8. Providing for speaker jacks connecting the front and rear of the room with conduit under floor?
9. Providing adequately for receiving radio and television in all classrooms?
10. Providing adequate well-lighted display surfaces (such as chalkboards, bulletin boards, pegboard) in each classroom?
11. Providing adequate storage and display space for specimens, models, and charts?
12. Providing adequate acoustical treatment of rooms?
13. Providing for door sills flush with floors?
14. Providing rubber-tired projector carts—a minimum for each floor?

AUDIO-VISUAL HEADQUARTERS (A-V CENTER)

Until we reach that millennium where each classroom will have its own complement of audio-visual devices, there will be need to centralize equipment, routing it to classrooms where it is needed. Then, too, expensive equipment needs cleaning, oiling, and other maintenance. This is best done in a room equipped for the job. Teachers know that one of the precepts of A-V instruction is to preview materials before using them in class. There must be a place where this can be done without conflicting with classroom activities. When A-V equipment is not in use in a classroom, it must be kept in readiness and out of harm's way in an adequate storage space. Recording discs and tapes, replacement parts (lamps, cables, and so on), film catalogues, and other A-V accessories must be kept in a place of easy access to teachers. The sum total of these considerations points to the inclusion of an audio-visual headquarters. Are you:

1. Providing a room—a minimum of 10 feet by 15 feet in size—which would include:
 - a. Central location?
 - b. Storage cabinets?
 - c. An abundance of 110-volt outlets?
 - d. Counter space for working?
 - e. Space for the storage of projectors and projection carts?
 - f. Storage space for films, filmstrips, slides, and recordings?
2. Providing a room for administration, previewing, and production of A-V materials,

in which the items listed below would be incorporated:

a. Administration

- (1) File cabinet?
- (2) Desk?
- (3) Conference table?
- (4) Phone or intercom to all rooms?
- (5) Chalk boards, bulletin boards, and tack boards?
- (6) Book rack for A-V books and periodicals?

b. Previewing

- (1) Light control?
- (2) Ventilation?
- (3) A wall screen?
- (4) Electrical outlets?
- (5) Television and radio antenna connections?
- (6) Four to six chairs with desk-pad arms?
- (7) Speaker and power cables in conduit under floor?

c. Production

- (1) Storage cabinet?
- (2) Paper cutter?
- (3) Dry-mounting press?
- (4) Sink?
- (5) Film splicing and rewinding equipment?

d. Recording:

- (1) Acoustical walls and ceiling?
- (2) Electrical outlets?

Note: If any school is looking for an inexpensive, practical method of light control for skylights, may I suggest that you contact Art Zeiller Company, Allendale, New Jersey. They are manufacturing and installing an accordion-type folding cover that can be opened or closed instantly and provides perfect light control.

Materials under the National Defense Education Act (Science, Mathematics, Foreign Languages)

The following materials have come to my attention in the past few months.

From NATIONAL FILM BOARD OF CANADA, 680 Fifth Ave., New York 19, N.Y.:

ATOMIC ENERGY IN CANADA: film, color or black and white, 28 mins. (Jr.—Sr. High)

For use in language classes (Sr. High) there is available from the National Film Board a long list of films with French vocabulary. Many are also available in Spanish, German, Italian, and other languages. Prices vary from \$40 to

Two Established Tests . . .

Large-Thorndike Intelligence Tests

KINDERGARTEN—GRADE 12

COMPREHENSIVE MEASURES OF SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

Iowa Tests of Basic Skills

GRADES 3-7

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\$280. A selected list follows: ANGOTEE, color, 32 mins.; CITY OF GOLD, black and white, 22 mins.; FAMILY TREE, 15 mins., color; FISHERMAN, black and white, 22 mins.; FRENCH CANADA-1534-1848, 13 mins., black and white; GOLD, 11 mins.; HERE'S HOCKEY, 11 mins., black and white; HERRING HUNT, 11 mins., black and white; THE IMPOSSIBLE MAP, 10 mins., black and white; INTRODUCING CANADA, 22 mins., black and white; JOLIFOU INN, 11 mins., color; LAND OF THE LONG DAY, 38 mins., color; MONASTERY, 20 mins., black and white; MOUNTAIN MOVERS, 11 mins., black and white; ONE LITTLE INDIAN, 16 mins., color; PHYSICAL REGIONS OF CANADA, 23 mins., black and white; RAILROADS, 22 mins., black and white; RICHES OF THE EARTH, 17 mins., color; ROAD OF IRON, 36 mins., black and white; ROMANCE OF TRANSPORTATION, 13 mins., color; SHYNESS, 23 mins., black and white; STORY OF A VIOLIN, 22 mins., color; STORY OF PETER AND THE POTTER, 21 mins., color; TI-JEAN GOES LUMBERING, 16 mins., color; THE WIND-SWEPT ISLES, 10 mins., black and white.

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SEED PLANTS: filmstrips, set of six, color, \$30. Titles of filmstrips are "Green Plants," "Seeds," "Roots," "Stems," "Leaves," "Flowers and Fruits." (Jr. High)

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